

Evaluation in Sport for Development:  
A Case Study of the Gansbaai Project, Football Foundation of South Africa,  
From A Critical Perspective

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**ABSTRACT**

The purpose of this case study was to determine the effectiveness of sport for development (SDP) evaluation within one program in Gansbaai, South Africa through critical, independent participant inclusive program evaluation. Qualitative research was conducted on the Football Foundation of South Africa (FFSA), where semi-structured interview data were collected from administrators and participants, as were data from direct participant observations and organizational documents. Data analysis followed, according to Kvale and Brinkman's (2008) methodology.

FFSA goals were found, as were themes of social impact (i.e., regarding coach-player relationships, trust, and coaching impact on social integration). A further theme related to evaluation components and procedures. Further themes included life skill development, competition within programming, participants' home life and social integration. Findings contribute to the SDP literature relating to program evaluation research and to FFSA administrators by providing an understanding of SDP program shortcomings, limitations, and suggested improvements.

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## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

In 1948, the United Nations (UN) determined that the right for children to develop and to gain access to education was paramount. Similarly, the United Nations Economic, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Charter of Physical Education and Sport (1978) proclaimed participation in physical education and sport as a fundamental right for every human being. Furthermore, sport, physical activity, and play were identified at the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child in 1989 and the UN also declared 2005 as the International Year for Sport and Physical Education. Clearly, efforts to use sport as a means of development have been made by the international community. As a partial result of these initiatives, research in Sport for Development and Peace (herein referred to as SDP) contexts has materialized, thereby shaping a developing academic area. Such an emergence warrants further attention, since Kidd (2008) notes that although SDP organizations provide a variety of positive outcomes, SDP is also “woefully underfunded, highly uncoordinated, and completely unregulated” (p. 371).

The notion of SDP is that sport and recreation can be used as a tool through which to foster developmental goals and initiatives (Kidd, 2008). Giulianotti (2011) further defines SDP as “advancing personal, social, and community forms of development” through the use of sport (p. 51). Beutler (2008) notes that sport programs provide an important means to achieve social, economic, and developmental goals. She also notes that an outcome of sport and physical education is to bring individuals and communities together, to highlight their commonalities and to help bridge cultural and ethnic divides between people.

Several empirical efforts have been made to examine SDP. Guest (2009) offers a study of how SDP programs operate by highlighting his work in Angola regarding the Olympic Movement. Giulianotti's (2011) discussions with various SDP officials also contribute to an awareness of current SDP best practices being used by field practitioners. Moving to specific social issues, Armstrong (2004) examines SDP programming inadequacies in Liberia through a study of the reintegration of child soldiers into the community. Schulenkorf (2010) also addresses social justice in the form of ethnic reconciliation, in his research of the effects of hosting a major multi-sport event in Sri Lanka and how different racial groups can be brought together over a common goal.

Further empirical work examines how SDP initiatives affect social and cultural impact on participants (Misener & Mason, 2006; Sanford, Armour, & Warmington, 2006), with several researchers noting that simply offering sport does not produce expected outcomes. Spaaj (2012) highlights the need to intentionally foster social relationships between stakeholders for SDP outcomes to be realized. Specifically, stakeholders must be intentional in bringing people together, rather than simply offering sport for diverse groups in which they simultaneously take part.

In considering how relationships between stakeholders may be intentionally developed, another component to be examined in relation to SDP program delivery are both organizational and stakeholder values. MacIntosh and Spence (2012) examine stakeholders' values in relation to the espoused organizational values of the Canada Commonwealth Games SDP program, finding varying degrees of value congruency between stakeholders themselves and between stakeholders and organizational values. Awareness of the level of such value congruency allows for a better understanding of

how organizational values connect with the social and cultural impact of program delivery.

Organizational managers of SDP programs are becoming increasingly aware of how and where they are spending money. As a result, managers continuously seek to reduce inefficient spending both within SDP organizations and partner organizations with such programs. Realizing that accountability is a component to validating SDP programming (Coalter, 2009), SDP program leaders turn to program evaluation as a means to examine their own fiscal responsibility and recognize their programs must be evaluated to ensure that funding awarded to them is spent in the most efficient way possible. In successfully responding to the recommendations of such evaluations, SDP program managers may be better equipped to respond to and meet demands from partner funding organizations, which may otherwise question the program's legitimacy.

The existing literature on program evaluation is reflective of influences from multiple disciplines, including management, organizational behaviour, education, sociology, anthropology, and psychology, all of which contribute to its theoretical background. Rossi, Lipsey, and Freeman (2004) describe program evaluation as a systematic, rigorous, and meticulous application of scientific methods to assess the design, implementation, improvement, or outcomes of a program. Through the evaluation process, program changes can be implemented through a feedback loop of information dissemination and integration. Applied to international development and SDP programs, an evaluation would constitute a rigorous assessment process to influence program improvements and delivery of program initiatives.

While researchers have called attention to the lack of program evaluation in the SDP literature (Coalter, 2010; Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010; Levermore, 2008a, 2008b;



Levermore & Beacom, 2009; Spaaj, 2009), little empirical research has been conducted to address this lack, perhaps due to the relatively recent emergence of the field. While empirical research exists (Armstrong, 2004; Giulianotti, 2011; Guest, 2009; Schulenkorf, 2010), such studies do not entirely address the scope of SDP program evaluation. Rather, they provide samples of how SDP program evaluation is being enacted in various contexts around the world.

Linking program evaluation with SDP, Levermore (2008b) notes that, “because there is a lack of comprehensive program evaluation, many observers, including traditional development actors, have raised questions and expressed concerns about the efficacy of sport-for-development programs” (p. 61). As well, Coalter (2009) argues that the complex nature of SDP raises questions about outcome-oriented approaches (i.e., based on results, rather than the process used to achieve the results) to monitoring and evaluation. He notes that more participants must be included in the evaluation process to develop a more formative approach (i.e., focus on building a successful program from the local level, rather than addressing concerns from outside influences such as funding agencies). Specifically, Guest (2009) identifies that there are “few empirical analyses of the actual practices of international development-through-sports programs in distinct local contexts” (p. 1336).

In connecting Levermore’s (2008b), Coalter’s (2009) and Guest’s (2009) arguments regarding SDP program evaluation, it is clear that a gap exists within the literature related to participant inclusive program evaluation of SDP programs. Scholars have criticized that since a lack of program evaluation exists for many SDP programs, the potential for program accountability may be lost (Levermore, 2008a; Spaaj, 2009). Further, SDP researchers (Coalter, 2010; Guest, 2009; Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010;

Levermore, 2008a; Levermore, 2008b; Levermore & Beacom, 2009; Spaaj, 2009) challenge both the theoretical grounding of existing program evaluation research and the perspectives through which the research has been conducted (i.e., critically examining SDP program structures and outcomes).

Thus, an attempt was made in the current study to contribute empirical evidence of participant inclusive, formative program evaluation research based on local contexts (Coalter, 2009; Guest, 2009; Levermore, 2008a). Moreover, the theoretical justification was to address the current literature gap and to build upon the existing literature by empirically evaluating the Gansbaai program run by the Football Foundation of South Africa (FFSA), thereby producing participant inclusive, formative evaluation research based on local contexts. In doing so, this study directly addressed Swart, Bob, Knott, and Salie's (2011) research call for research assessing project sustainability. Specifically, the primary purpose of the case study was to determine the effectiveness of sport for development programming evaluation within one established program in Gansbaai, South Africa through critical and independent participant inclusive program evaluation. The FFSA was created in an effort to overcome the legacy effects of Apartheid in this area.

Founded in 2008 by Dave Richards and the English Premier League, the FFSA is a non-profit organization operating several programs in South Africa and with an intention of promoting sport and grassroots development (About Us, n.d.). The FFSA administrators' aims are to provide children with the opportunity to play sport, learn about the environment, and integrate with children from other communities (i.e., Masakhane, Blompark, Gansbaai). Such aims are facilitated within a sport facility located centrally within these three communities and support educational and developmental opportunities for children who would otherwise likely not experience such opportunities.

Efforts to draw children together from these communities have historically experienced racial and social tension, which provides the researcher with an opportunity to examine a social integration initiative in the form of SDP programming in a relatively safe environment.

To aid in fulfilling the study's purpose, three research questions were developed, all of which specifically address researchers' (Darnell, 2007; Guest, 2009; Levermore, 2008b) reflections regarding existing gaps in the literature regarding evaluation in SDP programming. The first research question posed was: *how are the needs of the local communities being addressed in the delivery of the social integration initiative in Gansbaai, South Africa?* This question addresses Guest's (2009) argument that the local context is the most critical component to consider when evaluating a program's success. The second research question posed was: *in providing sport for development programming, what social or cultural impact does this particular SDP program make on its participants?* This question addresses Levermore's (2008b) concern that many program managers typically provide evaluations that are characterized by a "tick box" mentality (i.e., using a checklist of components that may contribute to positive experiences). Instead, Levermore (2008b) recommends that program evaluators be focused on assessing social impacts, using qualitative measures.

The third research question posed was: *how do the assumptions, beliefs, and biases of the program administrator(s) of the Gansbaai program affect its delivery and the potential outcomes for its participants?* This research question addressed Darnell's (2007) suggestion that SDP administrators, acting from a colonist worldview or set of beliefs, may influence the development of program outcomes and evaluation processes. Further, Darnell (2007) argued that program administrators' worldviews—specifically

administrators coming from a Western background—may exert a negative and influencing factor in program delivery by introducing perceptions of superiority and greater expertise.

Willis (2007) notes that the case study research method can allow the researcher to develop rich and detailed data. Furthermore, the case study method supports the idea that much of what we can know about human behaviour is best understood as lived experience in the social context. As well, case study research can be conducted without pre-determined hypotheses and goals. As the purpose of this study was to determine the effectiveness of SDP program evaluation within one established program in Gansbaai, South Africa through critical and independent participant inclusive program evaluation, and since no hypotheses are being tested, the use of case study methodology is appropriate to fulfill the study's purpose. In addition to using a case study methodology, a critical research perspective was utilized. Willis (2007) defines such a perspective as a critique of a current and existing ideology, which seeks to expose dominating or oppressive relationships in society. Examples of such oppressive issues found in sport for development may include the unequal treatment of women, poverty, and racism. While it should be noted that dominating or oppressive relationships may not always exist, research from a critical perspective can illuminate power relationships between individuals and within and between groups of individuals. In conducting this study, power relationships between and within various administrative and participant levels of the FFSA program and the constituents involved were examined.

The existing organizational relationships between FFSA administrators and program participants, as well as between the FFSA and the communities of Masakhane, Blompark, and Gansbaai, provided legitimacy to conducting the current study, as an the

relationships between FFSA administrators and participants may be considered relationships of power. For example, FFSA administrators maintain a form of power over potential participants wishing to join by controlling their access to the program. As well, interactions existing between program administrators, program officials, and program participants may be considered to be embedded within relationships of power since FFSA administrators control resources (e.g., balls, field space, travel opportunities), distributed at their discretion. It is the possibility of such power relationships existing that warrant the use of the critical perspective in the current study.

This study addresses significant needs within both the broader sport management academic literature and SDP programming realms. For example, the results of this study contribute to the existing foundation of empirical research in the SDP field and provide a stronger understanding of the ways in which program evaluation can inform and assist the field of international SDP development. The results of this study also provide a sense of organizational best practices and lend credibility amongst the SDP community by providing transparency of FFSA organizational practices. By conducting this study and by addressing the three research questions, the findings contribute to a better understanding of how to develop and deliver an effective SDP program.

This case study is presented in six chapters. In the second chapter, the SDP literature is reviewed to reach a thorough understanding of this emerging research field and to highlight the evident gaps in research in the SDP literature. In the third chapter, the research design and methodologies of the current study are outlined. In the fourth chapter, the findings of the study are fully outlined. In the fifth chapter, the results as they pertain to the three research questions are discussed. In the sixth chapter, managerial and future research recommendations and conclusions are presented.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

In this chapter, a variety of components important to this study are discussed, including definitions of key terms and an exploration of the evolution of the SDP academic field. The benefits, issues, and critiques within the SDP literature are also addressed. Different typologies are discussed, and the research gap addressed in this study is identified. To begin, it is necessary to first operationalize ‘development’ for the current study. Understanding there has been much literature on defining the term development, it is necessary to explore this concept on both a micro and macro level. On an individual level, development has been defined as growth through life stages (Perkins, Madsen, & Wechlesler, n.d.); increasing human capacity (Foster, 2006); and creating citizenship and identity (Sharma, 2008). While these individual concepts of development are useful, it is also important to acknowledge development from a broader perspective.

The broader perspective of development originated from an economic background, in that development was defined as a blueprint for social change in order to create a method of rule (McMichael, 2004). In extension, development was defined in relationship to a wider spectrum of system-level qualities, such that development has now encompassed poverty alleviation, local empowerment, supporting human rights, and overcoming inequality (Finnermore, 1997; Peet, 1999; Sachs, 1992). Recognizing the discrepant definitions of development, a relatively simple definition of development was utilized in the current case study, which included both individual and broader aspects of development. Specifically, development in this case study is identified as both intentional individual growth (i.e., growth of program participants) and the broader FFSA intentions of supporting social issue alleviation (i.e., poverty, social integration, racism, education).

Having identified how development is operationalized in the current case study, it is relevant to explore how development connects with sport. On a conceptual level, sport is viewed as structured efforts to facilitate physical activity. On an operational level, SDP refers to the programs and initiatives found globally that address developmental issues through the context of sport. Development issues in this sense may include, but are not limited to, those listed in the Millennium Development Goals identified by the UN in 2000, (i.e., universal primary education and eradicating extreme poverty and hunger) (United Nations Millennium Declaration). Like many research areas of in the sport management field, SDP is a relatively emergent field of study. To help locate where SDP literature is presently situated, a review of the literature is necessary.

In the SDP field, a significant scholarly debate exists between “sport for development” (or “sport for development and peace” or SDP) and “development through sport”. While sport for development/SDP programs aim to create infrastructure, build organizational and community capacity, and operate on a systematic level to affect broader social and cultural impacts, programs with underlying development through sport practices and philosophies support a more individual and elite level capacity development approach (Houlihan & White, 2002). Recognizing that these lines are often blurred such that organizations are often engaged in administering programs from both streams (with associated practices and philosophies), it is important to acknowledge the two streams by which organizational programs engaged in development work are identified. In this work, the term SDP is used, though both SDP and development through sport components may be evident in FFSA program.

The concept of sport being highly valued within the global community is not a novel one. Reflecting on well recognized universal movements, sport and physical

activity have both been identified as valuable life components in a variety of instances. For example, in the Universal Declaration of Rights (1948), the UN identified the right to child and youth development and education, which represented the first concentrated effort towards providing children with any form of development. A next significant evolution in the sport and development sphere was the UNESCO Charter of Physical Education and Sport (1978), which proclaimed childrens' participation in physical education and sport as their fundamental right. Further, at the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) sport, physical activity, and play were identified as a right and the UN also declared 2005 as the International Year for Sport and Physical Education. These efforts provided early legitimacy to sport and physical activity as crucial components of a healthy, global society. Through such policy development, programs were implemented through large organizations such as the United Nations, the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), and the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA). Concurrently, researchers began academically examining these established programs and initiatives.

Tracing the aforementioned political movements, efforts were made to link development initiatives and sport in a variety of ways (Armstrong, 2004; Beutler, 2008; Guest, 2009; Kidd, 2008). To make this link, research dedicated to better understanding how sport contributes to developmental efforts emerged. For example, initial research on SDP topics focused on the involvement of the UN in sport-related developmental initiatives, primarily those related to the Millennium Development Goals (Beutler, 2008; Kidd, 2008).

Beutler (2008) discussed the extensive work the UN was conducting as it related to sport and traced the UN's actions from the early 1990s into the new millennium. She



identified several key initiatives through this timeframe, not the least of which was the creation of the United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force “Sport for Development and Peace: Achieving the Millennium Goals.” Through this Task Force, significant gains were made in recognizing, formalizing, and mobilizing SDP initiatives. Specifically, Beutler (2008) reported on several mandates from the Task Force which were important to sustaining SDP initiatives and listed several obstacles existing for SDP programming and policy enactment. She also made a call to action at the Magglingen Conference on Sport and Development in 2005, intended to stimulate future research efforts.

### **Benefits of SDP Programs.**

Above and beyond clearly articulating the UN’s involvement with Sport for Development, Beutler (2008) also defined Sport for Development and explained how SDP programs benefit society, writing:

sporting programs provide an important means to achieve social, economic, and developmental goals. Sport is a power cross-cutting tool which can be complementary to existing tools. Sport and physical education have been found to bring individuals and communities together, highlighting commonalities and bridging cultural and ethnic divides. Sport and physical education provide a forum to learn skills such as discipline and leadership, and they convey core principles that are important in a democracy, such as tolerance, solidarity, cooperation and respect. Access to and participation in sport and physical education provide an opportunity to experience social and moral inclusion for individuals and populations otherwise marginalized by social, ethnic, cultural, or religious barriers. Through sport and physical education, individuals can experience equality, freedom, and a dignifying means for empowerment, particularly for girls and women, for people with a disability, for those living on conflict areas, and for people recovering from trauma. (p. 265)

Through this definition, Beutler (2008) outlined many benefits of successful SDP programs including bridging cultural and ethnic divides, core skill development, social and moral inclusion, and empowerment. Beutler (2008) argued strongly in favour of how SDP programs and initiatives can positively influence a community.

Long and Sanderson (2001) highlighted a number of community-based benefits from SDP programming. These are described as summative (i.e., accrual of public goods such as health care), reinvestment (i.e., individual skill acquisition contributing to a stronger community), local pride, consequential benefits (i.e., such as a reduction in crime as a result of positive influence), communality (i.e., shared experiences and increased interaction), and a “for us, by us” mentality. Long and Sanderson (2001) argued that when viewed together, such benefits are a valuable component of development initiatives.

Schulenkorf’s (2010) considers the validation of SDP benefits through his research, which focuses on ethnic reconciliation and conflict resolution within major sporting events amongst Tamil and Sinhalese peoples of Sri Lanka. Schulenkorf (2010) used an interpretive approach to investigate the use of sport events as a tool to bring ethnically diverse groups together, finding that “the event contributed to inclusive social identities along national lines; common interests; imagined factors; and, organizational lines” (p. 288). Schulenkorf’s (2010) study is significant in identifying how sport can be tangibly and beneficially used for development initiatives.

Armstrong’s (2004) study focused on the Bosco Project, a series of programs that facilitated the use of sport to aid in the protection of Liberian children and the rehabilitating of child soldiers caught in the Liberian Civil wars. Through examining the ways sport has influenced parents, children, and organizations in Liberian communities, Armstrong (2004) concluded that “the best football can claim to be able to offer is an avenue of better health, lessons on morality, the sacrifice teamwork requires, the need for charity and selflessness, and generally offer itself as a workable metaphor” (p. 495). Though sport can be a powerful tool on a local community level, Armstrong (2004)

claimed that sport cannot address broader political and structural problems beyond the local community. While Schulenkorf (2010) noted that SDP provides valuable benefits to development, Armstrong (2004) explained that SDP yields very little significant benefit to development. Such disparate views provide evidence that the field is not yet fully explored.

It is important to note that simply offering sport activities for the sake of teaching sport does not result in significant benefits (Crabbe et al., 2006; Misener & Mason, 2006; Sanford et al., 2006). Rather, the benefits experienced through SDP programming are the result of intentionally realizing social and cultural impact through program delivery. In this context, social or cultural impact can be defined as the change in perception or attitude within a particular setting (Sanford et al., 2006). Further, research focusing on developing social and cultural relationships has proven more fruitful in showing how sport can benefit development initiatives (Kay & Bradbury, 2009; Spaaj, 2009). By fostering social and cultural relationships, the benefits of SDP programming can be realized. Tangibly, social capital relates to the ability to create and cultivate social connections and to engage in interactions with others (Spaaj, 2012). In the context of the current case study, social capital provides a means of measuring how social and cultural impact exists, by considering such aspects as: increased awareness of one's abilities; enhanced self esteem; social connectedness; increased capacity to work in a team; improved attitudes; and, the ability to communicate (Spaaj, 2012).

Empirically, research has indicated that sport can play an important role in facilitating positive social and cultural impact, as indicated in Kunz's (2009) study of a SDP disaster recovery program in Bam, Iran. Coalter (2007) also discussed the political aspects of SDP initiatives, and highlights ways that SDP organizations can use these tools

to better position themselves for funding and validation. Coalter (2007) implied that programs must take advantage of their particular political context to achieve their goals.

Putnam (2000) notes social capital as a benefit that is derived specifically from SDP and argues there are two mechanisms through which social capital is manifested in sport. The first mechanism relates to the connections participants make by being a part of a group dynamic, which are characterized by working together with teammates. The second mechanism relates to participants' formation of identity, sense of belonging and presence, developed as a result of the support that is provided (Putnam 2000).

### **Issues of SDP Programs.**

Though there is evidence that SDP provides a variety of benefits, it must also be acknowledged that potential issues exist with how SDP is fundamentally viewed (Darnell, 2010; Guest, 2009). For example, Darnell (2007) examined Commonwealth Games Canada (CGC) interns' perceptions of their influence on facilitating change. He argued that although participants considered their intern experience as successful, the initiative and evaluation processes are limited because of the interns' narrow and closed worldview (i.e., donating time and resources in a "rescue" effort – to come in and fix the problem), and that interns' Western upper-class perspective marginalizes developing nations. Darnell (2007) contends that by white interns approaching the experience with a "fix it" perspective, or by not recognizing that their "whiteness" (i.e., the potential disconnect between their own white skin, cultural understandings, perceptions, and belief systems and those of the context within which they are working) exists, the potential for impacting development is flawed. Darnell (2010) argues that a tendency to ignore inequality as it pertains to colonialism and neo-liberalism exists within general SDP program delivery. By this, he indicates that a power relationship between program

administrators and program participants exists, but is not acknowledged. He argues that program administrators are biased and hold colonialist beliefs that influence delivery (i.e., SDP administrator believes the development strategies used in Western culture will be most effective in other contexts as well).

Support for the existence of a neoliberal or neocolonial approach to SDP—a worldview that suggests market forces are the ultimate driver of international development—comes from several scholars (Darby, 2002; Guest, 2013; Hayhurst, 2009). Darby (2002) criticized large sport federations such as FIFA for being instruments of neo-colonial domination, where political and economic motives for supporting specific development initiatives may be present. Further, Guest (2013) suggested neo-liberal, psychological processes are at play within SDP, such that administrators strongly promote/encourage participants to focus on behavioural changes towards a Westernized viewpoint that such changes are actually counter to the objectives pursued by SDP programs. Additionally, Hayhurst (2009) argued that SDP initiatives put a priority on personal change by emphasizing the development of “responsible” individuals who “make appropriate choices”, and argued that neo-liberalism exists in which administrators and program delivery agents decide what the appropriate choice is.

Further exploring critiques of SDP, Hartmann and Kwauk (2011) argued that SDP programs are most often a function with which to recalibrate underprivileged individuals into upstanding citizens. They argued that development in this sense is simply to discipline, socialize, and redirect an otherwise problematic population. Further, they critiqued that SDP also aims to realign entire communities, such that by creating social partnerships, giving access to more resources, and creating economic opportunity, SDP programs attempt to simply recreate the environment within which more developed

organizations operate in Western settings (Hartmann & Kwauk, 2011). The fundamental assumption here was that development is intended to level the playing field, and bring the marginalized context to a Western-equivalent operation.

Additionally, Hartmann and Kwauk (2011) highlighted a major concern with SDP programming is the ways in which they are delivered and their intended outcomes. Specifically, they discussed the intentions of elite, Western-trained administrators in the Pacific Islands SDP programs, where the intention was to deliberately socialize youth into a predetermined identity. They argued that fundamentally, the socialization or education of youth through sport is as much about recalibrating identities as it is about developing skills and values (Hartmann & Kwauk, 2011, pg. 292). Thus, by recalibrating identities into a hierarchy of privilege and opportunity (i.e., those who participate and gain the expertise of Western coaches and administrators are privileged to be able to do so, and thus higher status than those who do not), the status quo is maintained and supported rather than overcome, as many SDP organizations claim.

Guest (2009) offers another critique suggesting a dominant culture is present in SDP programming. Specifically, Guest (2009) noted that the way in which SDP is understood contextually varies and observed that, “local meanings for community residence derived from a context that was very different than that which oriented Olympic Aid [now known as Right to Play] as a primary Euro-American organization” (p. 1345). In studying the Olympic Aid program in Angola, Guest (2009) uncovered that:

the origins of the resistance lay in a conflict between distinct understandings of sport. Olympic Aid implicitly understood sport as a tool for international development and socializations; in this understanding, the community residents should be grateful for the opportunity to play and develop life skills. Community residents, in contrast, generally considered sport and play as a worthwhile amusement for children with little relevance to adult life unless it provided

professional opportunities; in this understanding, Olympic Aid should compensate participants for their services. Thus the diffusion of sport was tellingly shaped by a tension between different meanings for sport participation. (pp. 1345-1346)

Here, Guest (2009) highlighted a key difference between the reason for the Olympic Aid program to exist and how participants understood SDP. Guest (2009) argued that individual programs must be developed and evaluated according to the specific context in which the program is being delivered. Guest (2009) illuminated the importance that administrators must develop SDP programs on a local scale; as he prescribed, effective SDP programs are ones that simply provide “a social space for communities to enact their own versions of healthy and positive development” (p. 1347).

Supporting Guest’s (2009) arguments on local context, Burnett (2010) identified the preference of a bottom-up approach to development versus a top down approach, such as those dictated from a global or government perspective. The emphasis of Burnett’s (2010) work was that development initiatives should strive to develop local leaders in communities where programs are being delivered, so as to build local capacity and ultimately reduce the need for outside development influence.

Many researchers (Coalter, 2010; Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010; Levermore, 2008a; Levermore & Beacom, 2009; Spaaj, 2009) agree that a significant issue identified in the SDP literature is the lack of independent evaluation. Independent evaluation, in the context of SDP programs, refers to research conducted by an expert or consultant who has no affiliation to the organization being evaluated or populations targeted by these programs. Levermore (2008a) noted, “the literature that does exist, mainly practitioner led, is largely descriptive, and unrelated to many of the evaluation techniques employed by development agencies” (p. 189). In short, Levermore (2008a) believed the lack of

program evaluation ultimately affects the legitimacy and efficacy of SDP programming. About such program evaluation that is conducted, he stated, “there is a concern, mirrored in corporate social responsibility debates, that evaluation is too focused on a “tick box” mentality, and that calls for increased accountability are overriding the overall need for development” (p. 62).

As long as a lack of program evaluation exists, Levermore (2008a) believes the legitimacy of and investment in SDP initiatives may be compromised. Coalter (2010) suggested that, “monitoring and evaluation need to pursue understanding via participatory, process-centred and formative evaluation” (p. 311). Such evaluation methods may encourage SDP organizations to build organizational capacity, develop greater ownership in program objectives, and assist in the development of a critical and internally improving organizational culture (Coalter, 2010). The concept of a critical and internally improving organizational culture refers to organizations developing procedures through which dialogue and feedback occur in an effort to improve performance.

Connecting to Kidd’s (2008) concept of SDP, Hayhurst and Frisby (2010) empirically evaluated partnerships between two high performance sport organizations (i.e., one Canadian and one Swiss organization) and SDP initiatives, finding that SDP organizations often struggle with developing legitimacy when they are not linked with high performance sport. Hayhurst and Frisby (2010) were critical of organizations compromising their identities to remain under the umbrella of high performance sport. As well, they discovered that since SDP organizations are dependent upon their funding sources, they may cater to funders’ needs more than to organizational stakeholders’ needs. Specifically, the SDP organization may be forced to focus on funders’ objectives and not their own, particularly if the funding agency places pressure on the SDP



organization. For example, if funders request participation results, SDP organizations may sacrifice the quality of programming and dedicate more resources to increase participant numbers. Thus, efforts taken to evaluate these programs based on funding objectives may be flawed and detrimental from the outset because of the reality of the SDP organization's dependency on resources.

One other perspective to explore in terms of development and evaluation of SDP programs relates to values, from both organizational and stakeholder perspectives.

MacIntosh and Spence (2012) empirically examined the degree of connection between CGC organizational administrators' espoused values and the program stakeholders' perceived values in achieving SDP program end goals. They found that while program stakeholders perceived some of the administrators' espoused values (e.g., education, utility of sport) as occurring, they also perceived additional values that were occurring that were not espoused by the organization (e.g., community driven, personal growth). Understanding the degrees to which stakeholders perceive the organization's espoused values may allow for a better understanding of how program delivery and evaluation is affected. For example, if stakeholder groups perceive organizational espoused values differently from and between them, potential program evaluations may not reflect accurate results for the organization as a whole.

Additionally, Danisman, Hinings, and Slack (2006) discussed the existence of both integrated (i.e., similarly recognized throughout the organization) values and differentiated (i.e., differing perspectives amongst varying levels of the organization) values within a sport organization context. They uncovered that within Canadian National Sport Organizations, stakeholder groups (i.e., administrative groups, departments, task forces) assume a level of uniformity in adopting institutional values

(i.e., those projected by the organization). They also found however, that many subgroups adopted values differently and not as strongly as other subgroups. They argued that differentiation exists from the organizational level to the individual within the transfer of values. Ultimately, the transfer of values - or a lack of transfer in some cases - can impact the program delivery and quality of evaluation within a SDP organization.

### **Typologies.**

In order to better understand the ways in which the aforementioned issues are manifested in SDP organizations, it is important to examine how SDP organizations are identified in the literature. While Kidd (2008) acknowledged that SDP is beneficial for youth, he identifies several existing issues in terms of funding, organization, and regulation, and recognized that improvement is necessary. Kidd (2008) made the distinction between *sport development* (i.e., the improvement of existing sport structures to develop high performance athletes for the purposes of competition) and *sport for development* (i.e., the intention to address issues using sport as the tool for change).

Kidd's (2008) distinction between these two concepts is important, because using sport as a means of achieving developmental goals rather than developing sport itself has become the focus of research (Armstrong, 2004; Guest, 2009; Schulenkorf, 2010) in the current study. It must be noted however, that the distinction between these two concepts is not always clear. While some organizations are strictly focused on developing sport excellence, others are strictly focused on achieving developmental goals. Some organizations have programs upon which philosophies of both concepts are included and expressed, thus making organizational identification as SDP more difficult (Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010).

Much of the descriptive literature in SDP focuses on the identification and classification of various SDP programs. Mchombo (2006) noted that development programs have traditionally been classified as having an economic focus, where sport has been exploited to achieve economic success within the community. From this original economic focus, academics have made efforts to understand how SDP programs are differentiated from other programs (Coalter, 2007; Kidd, 2008; Levermore, 2008b). More specifically, several scholars offer classifications, which further distinguish SDP programs and initiatives. These classifications are highlighted below (See Table 1).

Table 1: Different Classifications of SDP Programs

Kidd (2008): Based on Social Focus	Coalter (2007): Based on Organizational Traits	Levermore (2008b): Based on Program Outcomes
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Improvement of sport infrastructure</li> <li>2. Humanitarian sport initiatives providing support</li> <li>3. Post-war reconciliation efforts</li> <li>4. Other organizations involved in SDP movement</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Traditional Sport Organizations</li> <li>2. Sport Plus Organizations</li> <li>3. Plus Sport Organizations</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Conflict resolution</li> <li>2. Intercultural understanding</li> <li>3. Building infrastructure</li> <li>4. Raising awareness</li> <li>5. Empowerment</li> <li>6. Economic development</li> <li>7. Psychological health and general welfare</li> <li>8. Poverty alleviation</li> </ol>

Kidd (2008) offers a first broad classification system of both sport development and sport for development programs with a social focus. He has categorized these programs into four overlapping classifications. First, in traditional sport development, the focus is on the improvement of sport infrastructure (e.g., creating fields and open space). Second, with humanitarian sport initiatives, the focus is on providing forms of support (e.g., fundraising efforts). Third, in post-war reconciliation efforts, the focus is on

fostering goodwill and collaboration between hostile regions. Fourth, Kidd (2008) classifies any organization involved in development and peace as part of the “SDP movement.”

Alternatively, Coalter (2007) offers a second classification of sport for development programs with a focus on organizational traits. First, “traditional” sport organizations are classified, where it is assumed that sport has inherent developmental characteristics and it is not necessary to supplement physical activity with other initiatives. Second, “sport plus” organizations are also classified, where sport is used in conjunction with non-sport programs to achieve developmental goals and third, “plus sport” organizations are classified, where sport is used to initially draw participants’ interest and then participants can equally focus on other initiatives (e.g., packaging sport with an academic component in an effort to educate).

Levermore (2008b) offers a third classification of SDP programs, all of which are based on program outcomes, including: conflict resolution and intercultural understanding; building physical, social, and community infrastructure; raising awareness, particularly through education; empowerment; direct impact on physical and psychological health and general welfare; economic development; and, poverty alleviation. To date, Levermore’s (2008b) classification is the most sophisticated of the three reviewed and provides a guide for those programs that drive developmental initiatives, thereby allowing both scholars and managers to better understand both organizations and programs in the SDP field.

### **Research Gap.**

Having examined the SDP literature, it is clear that a gap exists in the areas of monitoring and evaluating how sport is used as a tool in developmental initiatives. Guest

(2009) emphasized utilizing a local context approach, driven by a participant inclusive process when engaging in evaluation procedures. Hayhurst and Frisby (2010) noted concerns that evaluation results are being used to justify funding rather than to improve programming, which precipitates a call for independent evaluation research. Darnell (2010) highlighted the need to be critical of the way in which SDP programs are delivered.

Furthermore, the gap specifically points to a lack of empirical research that has been conducted within SDP programs. While such empirical work is developing (Darnell, 2010; Guest, 2009; Hayhurst and Frisby, 2010), a need for independent evaluation of SDP projects still exists. The purpose of the current study was to determine the effectiveness of sport for development programming evaluation within one established program in Gansbaai, South Africa through critical and independent, participant-driven evaluation. In this participant inclusive study of the Gansbaai program operated by the FFSA, this gap was addressed and the findings contribute to the growing body of SDP literature.

### **Context of the Current Study.**

In order to contextualize the current study, it is relevant to briefly explore the wider environment within which this particular SDP program exists. By examining the political and economic landscape of South Africa, better recognition of the significance of this work is achieved. South Africa has experienced racial segregation throughout its history, dating back to Dutch and British rule. According to Keegan (1996), some of these racial relations can be attributed to emerging capitalist movements that developed through the late 19<sup>th</sup> and early 20<sup>th</sup> centuries. Through this time period, discovery of gold and diamond mines in South Africa led thousands of Africans and foreign immigrants to

move to urbanized areas, which ultimately caused war to erupt between the British and Afrikaner republics (Nauright, 1997). The British prevailed and encouraged greater immigration through the early 1900's, thus growing the white population in South Africa. This immigration effort failed and resulted in a significantly larger population of Afrikaners, which led to the Afrikaner-Broederbond movement, ultimately impacting the 1948 election and ushering in the era of Apartheid (Nauright, 1997).

With the discovery of gold and diamonds and with a subsequent mass movement of mine workers, many other Africans followed the mine workers into the urbanized areas of the country in the early 1900's (van Onselen, 1982). The white mine owners and city administrators had little tolerance for the slum communities that developed as a result of these poorer populations moving into the city centres—many of whom the whites believed brought disease—and thus began the physical segregation of moving these slum communities away from the white population (Swanson, 1977). By initiating this movements in the early 1900's and specifically with the emergence of the *Native Land Act* in 1913, white officials began to limit access and ownership rights to land for black and coloured populations. By physically separating these groups from white city centres, much of the white population developed a perspective that black and coloured racial groups were associated with disease, thereby further alienating these groups from the rest of the population (Nauright, 1997).

The *Native Land Act* of 1913 restricted black land ownership to just 7% of the country, yet the black racial group numbered more than three quarters of the total South African population. Further, the *Native Administration Act* of 1927 gave white administrators the authority to remove any African group or person anywhere in South Africa, cementing the ability of the white racial group to segregate the blacks. It also

limited the ability for black and coloured groups to protest against these policies, in conjunction with the *Riotous Assemblies Act* of 1930, which disallowed them to resist the government or the laws of the country. As such, protests and mass gatherings could be declared illegal and participants arrested (Nauright, 1997). These policies, in conjunction with the emergence of the Afrikaner-Broederbond movement, allowed the National Party to win the 1948 election, thus creating the impetus for further political segregation.

“Apartheid” is commonly known as the period of time when political sentiment elevated the status of whites and repressed other racial groups. Two policies were introduced at this time that signified the beginning of the Apartheid era in South Africa. First, the *Population Registration Act* of 1950 introduced a system of racial identification, such that all persons over the age of 18 must be classified as “White”, “Black”, “Coloured”, or “Indian” (Treiman, 2005). Second, the *Group Areas Act* of 1950 dictated that such racial groups were to live in distinct and separate areas from one another (Boddy-Evans, 2007).

Further policies included: the *Prohibition of Mixed Marriages Act*, 1949; the *Suppression of Communism Act*, 1950; the *Bantu Authorities Act*, 1951; the *Reservation of Separate Amenities Act*, 1953; and, the *Bantu Education Act*, 1953 (Boddy-Evans, 2007). These policies all contributed to a culture of black suppression, and to a lesser extent, the suppression of the Indian and coloured populations. Housing and residential areas were segregated and services (e.g., education, medical care, government services) for these racial groups became separate from services for the white racial group (Beck, 2000; Byrnes, 1996).

In addition, the Apartheid government created a significant and negative economic impact between South African and international countries. In 1963, the United

Nations called for a voluntary arms embargo against South Africa, made mandatory in 1977. As well, in 1962, the UN recommended severing political, fiscal, and transportation relations with South Africa, followed by a 1968 resolution to additionally sever cultural, educational, and sporting relations. In 1978 and again in 1983, the UN condemned South Africa for the racist political regime, which led to many investors removing their investments in South African companies.

By the late 1980s, many countries had trade sanctions against South Africa, which severely limited the ability for economic growth (Elliott, Hufbauer, & Oegg, 2008). Recognizing that Apartheid policies were causing significant issues both domestically and internationally, Political sentiment shifted throughout the late 1980s and early 1990s, with the intention of adapting or abolishing the policies in place since the early 1900's (Country Studies, 2006). These negotiation efforts led to the end of the Apartheid regime in 1994 and the first general election was held, with approximately 20 million South Africans representing all racial groups voting.

Many legacies of the Apartheid era still exist in South Africa. For example, the *Employment Equity Act* still requires organizational administrators to classify each employee, thus creating racial classifications such that the government will provide preferential treatment toward those companies with a racially balanced staff. Further, the white population maintains a favourable economic status, with the black population constituting 90% of the poorer population (Statistics South Africa, 2006). Residual effects of the *Group Areas Act* still exist as well, with racially segregated populations still prevalent in many parts of South Africa.

One area that continues to experience negative racial legacies from Apartheid is the town of Gansbaai, in the Western Cape region of South Africa (see Appendix A).



Gansbaai is located approximately 250km from Cape Town on the coast of the Indian Ocean. The primary industry is fishing, with a growing tourism industry based on the high density of Great White sharks found in the area. The region's population, as dictated through the *Group Areas Act*, is separated into three distinct sections of the town and is segregated into communities that operate independently from each other (see Appendix B) (Gansbaai, n.d.). These separate communities include: the township of Masakhane, population of approximately 12,000 black residents; the township of Blompark, population of approximately 5,000 coloured residents; and the township of Gansbaai, population of approximately 8,000 white residents. These three townships are segregated based on individuals' race and economic status, further validating the need for programs such as the Football Foundation of South Africa (FFSA).

The FFSA funds three specific programs including: 1) the Gansbaai sports facility and program, where programs focus on developing youth through education and integration; 2) an initiative in Bafokeng, which has a dual focus of creating sport infrastructure and high performance; 3) the Soccer Institute in Mafikeng, which is an educational facility that supports both academic and athletic excellence for South African youth (Projects, n.d.). The Gansbaai sports facility and program are the foci of the current study, given the specific focus on SDP in the current study. The initiative in Gansbaai offers programs in football, netball, hockey, and cricket throughout the week with sport competition occurring on weekends. Youth between 6-19 years of age participate in athletic activities and learn about social and environmental issues during program sessions. Other important components of the program include educating youth on significant South African dates (e.g., Women's Day, Human Rights Day, and World

AIDS Day) and supporting the development of young volunteers as a foundation for future SDP sustainability (Gansbaai, n.d.).

As previously mentioned, Swart et al. (2011) discussed the potential legacy impacts of the World Cup, through their study of the FFSA and how smaller communities were affected, arguing that as a result of South Africa hosting the World Cup, many outcomes otherwise not possible were achieved within the FFSA. The results from their research indicated that smaller communities are impacted by mega-events, through improved participation in sport, infrastructure, and higher awareness of community sport programs. They recommended that the FFSA continue to leverage support for their programs from the three nearby communities, as well as maintain a strong evaluation component to ensure program sustainability.

Having examined both positive and negative perspectives of SDP within the sport management literature, a better understanding of the existing gaps in the literature was gained. Exploring the benefits and critiques of SDP, as well as reviewing the different classification systems that have been developed to help define SDP, provided a context within which to frame this study. Further, identifying the geographic and organizational contexts within which this study took place allowed the research to attain deeper insights and analysis. The following chapter will provide the methods through which this study was conducted.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODS**

In this chapter, a detailed report of the study's research design and methodologies is provided. Specifically, the research paradigm, design, and methods that were chosen and used will be described. Aspects discussed include the considerations for engaging in the research (e.g., triangulation and trustworthiness) and data collection and analyses procedures. In the current study, the case study approach was employed, which involves the exploration of an issue through one or more cases in a bounded system (Creswell, 2007). The bounded system is explored over time, through an in-depth collection of multiple data sources to report a case description. In the current research, the case study methodology was appropriate because it was applied to examine the bounded system of one SDP organization while collecting and analyzing data sources to an in-depth degree.

Neuman (2005) defined a paradigm as a "basic orientation to theory and research" (p. 70). In this case study of an independent evaluation of a SDP program in Gansbaai, South Africa, a critical paradigm was used. The critical paradigm has roots in critical sociology, which dictates that knowledge is transactional and subjective. As such, reality is defined by the interaction between entities; a researcher using a critical paradigm believes that the world around him or her is socially constructed. The critical paradigm is similar to the interpretive paradigm such that the researcher is looking for the lived experience of participants, but differs from interpretive research in its intention for the researcher to initiate change. While a researcher using interpretive research intends to explain and describe phenomenon from a particular point of view, a critical researcher

seeks to overcome potential disparity and inequality through an exploration of a phenomenon. By exposing issues of inequality, critical researchers build greater awareness, thereby addressing potential solutions. In critical research, change is initiated when dominant relationships are discovered and challenged.

Researchers using a critical paradigm examine the potential for existing power relations within situations, which may be shaped by social, cultural, ethnic, and gender factors. In the current case study, the impact of using sport as a tool for development was examined in the context of a program in Gansbaai, South Africa, through the lens of a critical paradigm. This program offers the opportunity for children and youth from various communities to participate together in sport and education initiatives and fulfills the criteria as a SDP initiative, as identified by Coalter (2007), Kidd (2008), and Levermore, (2008b). This program additionally fits the description of a SDP organization in need of evaluation, as indicated by Swart et al. (2011).

Not only do critical researchers wish to understand a phenomenon, their intention is to overcome some form of injustice and improve the experience of a “marginalized” group. Yee (2005) defined marginalization at a community level as connected to the maintenance and enforcement of dominant norms (i.e., how people react) and discourse (i.e., how people interact). In the current study, dominant norms may exist that potentially do not allow people within the three segregated communities to react and interact peacefully. For example, dominant norms and discourse may exist in Gansbaai in the form of access to program, program delivery through instructor bias, and program design. In this study, the use of a critical paradigm provided an opportunity to uncover any dominant norms and discourses evident in the FFSA’s program delivery.

Further, marginalization of the black and coloured populations exists in South Africa currently through participation in the global economy, which has caused increased poverty and unemployment (Ballard, Habib, Valodia, & Zuern, 2005). For example, Ballard et al. (2005) argued that national governments are assigning local governments with the responsibility of program delivery, who in turn, privatize program delivery to ensure that such programs can pay for themselves. Such privatization processes force community members to pay for programs, many of who are unemployed and cannot afford to pay, thereby marginalizing these groups. These issues are coupled with political shifts, as South Africa adopts a democratic process. Long standing tensions and conflicts through the Apartheid era are still prevalent and affect implementation of development initiatives (i.e., SDP programs).

Moreover, an understanding of the lived experience of South African youth living within a historically at-conflict region and participating within the Gansbaai program was studied using the critical paradigm. This paradigm was relevant to the study's purpose, because a contextual understanding of these individuals contributed to a deeper understanding of how potential power relationships may exist, and how such relationships affect the FFSA programs. Further, the potential for dominant relationships existing within the FFSA and its programs was also explored. The context of the FFSA provided the researcher with an opportunity to employ critical research as it pertains to marginalization and SDP programming evaluation.

A fundamental assumption in critical research is that organizations are best viewed as operating within wider cultural, economic, and political contexts, and that these contexts influence how organizations interact with other organizations and their stakeholders. Willis (2007) noted that the cornerstone of critical research is uncovering

power relationships (i.e., relationships that are dominant or oppressive) between groups of people.

Frisby (2005) justified the use of the critical paradigm and argued that if researchers are to fully understand all dimensions of sport management, research must be conducted from multiple paradigms. Frisby (2005) further stated that sport management researchers under-utilized the critical paradigm in the sport contexts and researchers are actually better positioned to explore organizational structure and the broader perspective than counterparts in sport sociology. Further, Cunningham and Fink (2006) argued that since the majority of sport management researchers operate from a positivist paradigm, theoretical justification is readily available to sport management researchers to use a critical paradigm, given the need to expand from a more traditional focus.

### **Triangulation and Trustworthiness.**

Triangulation and trustworthiness were incorporated in the study's design. Stake (1995) identified triangulation as the method of collecting multiple data sources to ensure accuracy and to provide alternative explanations. Denzin (1984) asserted that triangulation increases the confidence in the interpretation of the data. According to Yin (1994), there are several methods of collecting data in case study research, including documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observation, participant observation, and collection of physical artifacts. In this case study, three data sources were triangulated, including: semi-structured interviews, document analysis, and direct participant observations. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), trustworthiness refers to the level of effort the researcher exerts in making the results of the study worthy of attention. Trustworthiness is a demonstration that the collected and analyzed data are sound and that the arguments generated from the findings are also strong.

Trustworthiness in this study was achieved through the use of triangulation (Denzin, 1984).

Additionally, to achieve trustworthiness, these data had to be proven to be credible, be transferable, show dependability, and be confirmable (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Credibility of data is described as the accuracy with which the data is collected (e.g. consistent interview processes) so as to represent the reality of the subject. In this case study, the data's credibility was established primarily through establishing a consistent process of interviewing study participants to elicit their real experiences. Transferable data refers to the degree to which the study's findings are generalizable to different settings. Thus, an accurate portrayal of the FFSA (i.e., the study's context) was important to establish transferability of the study's results, as was the accuracy with which all data sources are reported. Dependability refers to the consistency that was exacted in the research process. In this case study, interviews were conducted uniformly and consistently with participants representing two separate groups. Finally, confirmable data (i.e., data that are collected that can be confirmed by another source) were supported by multiple layers of data collection (i.e., interviews, direct participant observations, document analysis).

To further verify that the results of this study accurately represented the collected data, the use of direct participant observations and commensurate research notes also satisfied Lincoln and Guba's (1985) criteria of dependability and confirmation. The level of detail within interview data and direct participant observations satisfied the criteria of transferability. Credibility was reached through maintaining consistency throughout the research process (i.e., performing interviews at consistent times and places for each participant). The researcher also ensured trustworthiness by considering Lincoln and

Guba's (1985) criteria through the data collection phase and by writing extensive observation notes in a consistent manner (i.e., recording time, location, context of each observation, completed on a daily basis), as well as employing in-depth probes during each interview.

### **Data Collection**

#### **Use of a Confederate.**

A FFSA administrator served as a Confederate, and provided the researcher with access to the organizational contexts of the FFSA, otherwise not available. As well, the Confederate served as a liaison to the researcher for the first round of interviews. The researcher contacted the Confederate via email several months prior to the data collection phase and assisted the researcher in booking flights, accommodations, and transportation to and from the airport and the FFSA. The Confederate also arranged transportation for the researcher to and from Cape Town and Gansbaai, as well as arranged for the researcher to stay in the volunteer Guesthouse, which is owned by the FFSA. The Confederate provided the researcher with information regarding what to expect as well as email information of administrators, all prior to the researcher's arrival in South Africa.

#### **Participant Recruitment.**

Two stakeholder groups were recruited for participation in this study, including: 1) FFSA administrators working at the facility (i.e., FFSA executives responsible for planning and overseeing FFSA programs and FFSA Coaches; and 2) FFSA program participants. To qualify as a FFSA program participant, individuals had to be linked to the FFSA program and specifically linked to the project in Gansbaai.

#### ***Recruitment of FFSA Administrators and Executives.***



The Confederate also facilitated the researcher's access to program administrators and executives by soliciting permission to be contacted and individuals' contact information prior to the study's commencement. This contact information was passed from the Confederate to the researcher, and the researcher directly contacted several potential interview participants. As the Confederate indicated that FFSA executives, administrators, and coaches had access to computers and the internet, the researcher sent emails from Canada to these stakeholders to outline the study's purpose, methodology, and benefits of participation as well as a request for participation in the study. In these email messages, the researcher attached letters of invitation and informed consent for the potential participants to read and sign, thus indicating their participation in the study (see Appendix C). The researcher arranged interview dates and times with administrators and coaches through an email exchange process prior to departing from Canada. The researcher conducted four pre-arranged interviews in South Africa before soliciting additional research participants on-site.

#### ***Recruitment of Program Participants.***

In this study, FFSA program participants were recruited based on a convenience sampling technique, where the researcher sampled the most readily available participants, within a particular geographical frame; most specifically in this case study, the FFSA facility in Gansbaai, South Africa. Using this sampling technique was appropriate in this case study due to the researcher's lack of access to participants prior to travelling and commencing the research in Gansbaai, South Africa. Given that recruitment of participants was based on their availability at the time of the study, convenience sampling was appropriate for the first round of interviews with both participant groups while conducting research on-site in Gansbaai.

The researcher solicited interviews with participants in person while on-site at the sport facility in Gansbaai whereby the researcher approached program participants to explain the study's purpose and intended outcomes and asked for voluntary participation. Recognizing that language barriers may have existed while using this method, the Confedrate arranged to have individuals help the researcher with any translation aspects. In the end, such translation services were not required, as all participants spoke English well enough to converse with the researcher. The researcher ensured the program participants that there would be no consequences to non-participation in the study, by clarifying that the research study was not related to their participation in FFSA programs in any way. Additionally, the researcher provided all study participants with his university email address and telephone number to ensure they could respond to any problems or issues incurred during the data collection phase (i.e., the time at which the researcher was on-site at the FFSA) and encouraged them to use these available communication channels at any time, if necessary.

### **Interviews.**

Interviews refer to the process of holding an interactive discussion with an individual, with an intention of developing an understanding of that person's lived experience (Yin, 1994). By using semi-structured interviews, the researcher can control broad discussion topics, while still allowing the conversation to flow and for a research participant to generate his or her own story (Yin, 1994). As this case study was framed with the critical paradigm, its focus was both exploratory and descriptive in trying to understand how power relations were in effect with various stakeholder groups. Kvale and Brinkmann (2008) highlighted that exploratory semi-structured interviews are conducted when little information is known. As such, collecting interview data was

justified in the current study given the exploratory nature of the study's purpose. As well, semi-structured interviews were appropriate for use, given that the context of the larger community was also being studied. Through this data collection method, characteristics of the participants' lived experiences could be generated (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2008). Further, the researcher chose to conduct semi-structured interviews because they are the most promising method to ascertain participants' perspectives according to the "reality" of their experiences in particular cases (Hoepfl, 1997).

Patton (2002) identified three types of semi-structured interviews: 1) the informal conversation interview; 2) the general interview guide approach; and, 3) the standardized open-ended interview. In the current study, the general interview guide approach was used, such that the researcher built a conversation regarding a particular subject area while wording questions spontaneously. The researcher also established a conversation style while focusing the specific subject of the FFSA programs. The researcher was able to interview different people systematically and comprehensively by "delimiting in advance the number of issues to be explored" (Patton, 2002, p. 343).

Interview questions were developed and revised prior to the study's commencement to ensure that the structure of the interview guide was consistent for all participants (i.e., both FFSA administrators and program participant groups). All questions related to the three main research questions and were based on current SDP theory and research. For example, questions that required respondents to describe the local context addressed Guest's (2009) arguments that accounting for local context is critical to successful program delivery. Questions that required respondents to speak to the program's social and cultural impacts considered Levermore's (2008b) arguments regarding how SDP organizations approach and assess such impact. Questions that

required respondents to speak to program evaluation addressed the research gap identified by several scholars (Coalter, 2009; Guest, 2009; Levermore, 2008a).

Different interview guides were developed and used for each interview group, to gauge group perspectives independently from one another, pertaining to the same general topics (see Appendices E and F). Moreover, questions were developed in accordance with Patton's (2002) distinctions of question type and structure, including: experience/behaviour, opinion/value, feeling, knowledge, sensory, and background/demographic. Questions were reviewed and revised to ensure they addressed the study's purpose and the three research questions. Ultimately, the researcher's task was to ask participants appropriate questions and to pursue lines of conversation with them that would contribute to an understanding of the study's purpose. Such a task required the researcher to intuitively follow up on participants' comments—thereby occasionally prompting participants, while simultaneously building a trust relationship with them.

The researcher asked respondents for permission to digitally record the interviews before conducting the interviews. As such, all interviews were digitally recorded for later transcription and analysis. According to Bloor, Frankland, Thomas, and Robson (2001), the process of transcription results in occasionally fragmented data, which may mean instances of respondents' unclear language, contradictions and interruptions, in addition to poor sound quality of the recording. Despite such instances, Bloor et al. (2001) note that the researcher should edit minimally, in an effort to maintain exact speech as it is necessary for accurate interpretation.

### ***Conducting Interviews.***

Three interviews were conducted with FFSA executives, two interviews were conducted with FFSA officials, and 12 interviews were conducted with FFSA program participants, totaling 17 individuals interviewed. Yin (1994) notes that for qualitative research, the number of respondents interviewed is less important than the quality of responses obtained from interviewees. Given that the researcher's intention was to conduct participant-driven evaluation research on an SDP program, the researcher arranged to conduct a greater number of interviews with FFSA program participants than with FFSA executives and volunteers. Further, Stake (1995) notes that case study research is complete when sufficient information is attained to adequately explain the phenomenon.

Interviews were conducted in the same location for all study participants (i.e., on the sports field in Gansbaai during training sessions). While there was minimal background noise that affected the sound quality, there was one instance where the researcher could not decipher what was said on the recorded interview, affecting 14 seconds of the recording. Further, the researcher conducted all interviews in the same manner according to the interview guides and occasionally prompted the interviewee to direct him or her back to the question being asked.

#### ***Supplemental Data Sources.***

To supplement interview data, the researcher engaged in direct participant observations of interactions between study participants and organizational stakeholders (i.e., participants interacting with coaches away from the field, administrators interacting with one another in informal settings). Though it is argued that direct participant observations have no definitive procedures and techniques, Jorgensen (1989) describes the practice as a methodology aimed to generate practical and theoretical truths about

human life, which are grounded in the realities of daily existence. The use of direct participant observations allows the researcher to observe how people make sense of the world around them in the course of daily life. By being immersed in a particular culture and by understanding the context of that culture, the researcher can directly observe and interpret how a group views the world. In the context of this case study, direct participant observations of participants' daily life in Gansbaai, South Africa, were gathered and analyzed to support interview data and organizational documents in general. The researcher engaged in direct participant observations in multiple locations including the Cape Town airport, volunteer guest house, the on-site fields and clubhouse, various schools, and in each of the communities of Musakhane, Blompark, and Gansbaai. The researcher primarily focused his direct participant observations on cultural differences to discern between what the researcher's previously understood of South African life and what the researcher was generally witnessing, as well as on interactions between administrators and program participants related to teaching and coaching within the programs. The researcher observed these aspects to create a better understanding of life in South Africa, which contributed to the analysis of the FFSA programs.

The researcher recorded all direct participant observations in a notebook at the time of the observation, and then inputted the observations in a word document on a laptop computer. Such direct participant observations occurred on a continuous basis throughout the duration of the researcher's stay in South Africa and allowed the researcher to better understand the interactions between different stakeholders. As well, gathering direct participant observations helped the researcher develop an understanding of the culture that existed amongst the various communities so he could make fully informed suggestions for improvement or change. Yin (1994) justifies employing direct

participant observations, arguing that their biggest contribution is their accounting for context. By observing context, the researcher could better conduct interviews with participants because he was more informed on sensitive issues and potential problem areas (i.e., observing an interaction between participants from different communities helped to inform how each participant may have viewed the intended outcomes of social integration).

In this case study, official FFSA organizational documents that outline the stated goals, objectives, and procedures were also collected for analysis. As well, FFSA instruction manuals and guides were also collected to be analyzed for comparison alongside the direct participant observations and the interview data. Use of organizational documents was advantageous in this case study because they are static; the documents existed before the case study and will exist afterward and provide detailed information (Yin, 1994). The Confederate provided access to the researcher to collect organizational documents that were not available electronically (i.e., funding requests and internal policies). The researcher accessed additional FFSA web page information via the Internet.

### **Data Analysis**

Following Bloor et al. (2001), data analysis was systematic and reflective within each and all cases, and no case was excluded based on the researcher's discretion. The researcher conducted inductive analysis and took note of the emergent themes from the information available through the interviews and direct participant observations gathered. Kvale and Brinkmann (2008) identify three steps in the data analysis process: 1) meaning coding; 2) meaning condensation; and, 3) and meaning interpretation. The researcher used the computer program ATLAS.ti for coding, condensation, and interpretation

processes, as such a program provides additional ways to organize and sort data (Lewis-Beck, Bryman, & Liao, 2004). First, meaning coding refers to the process of assigning categories that reflect the experiences and actions that develop through the data collection. The researcher engaged in meaning coding such that he worked with the interview guides and the questions that were answered most frequently and with most clarity, and then assigned categories to identify the focus of coding.

Second, meaning condensation refers to the process of taking longer selections of data that contain categories and condensing them into more manageable data sets that maintain the essence of the original meaning. Kvale and Brinkmann (2008) identify five steps in this process, including: 1) thoroughly reading the data; 2) determining the natural meaning units; 3) restating those themes that exist in the natural unit; 4) interrogating the meaning unit in order to tie back to the study's purpose; and, 5) connecting the non-redundant themes (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2008). All interviews conducted with respondents in Gansbaai were analyzed using this process. This required the researcher to examine the interview data to identify themes within each group for both FFSA administrators and program participants. The researcher developed themes by examining responses from each individual interviewee and by collaborating common answers. Third, meaning interpretation involves identifying relationships between meanings that are not apparent in earlier stages (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2008). This was done by reviewing the data that had not been coded into the original themes, and by exploring potential new themes that may have existed.

In order to further ensure the most accurate analysis, inter-rater reliability was established for all coded data after original themes developed. Leiva (2006) defines inter-rater reliability as the process of creating categories by which multiple judges can



assign responses into the same meanings. In the current study, the research considered and reached inter-rater reliability through a process of creating a set of codes and then teaching these codes to a second coder, who independently coded a portion of the data. As the second coder agreed with ten of the 11 major themes (i.e., coded the portion of data to capture the same themes from the same interview transcript) that emerged from the researcher's initial coding, all major themes were reflected in both sets of coded data. It was determined the researcher and the second coder reached a high level of inter-rater reliability.

Direct participant observations were analyzed using the same method as described for interviews. The researcher identified emergent issues and themes within his observation notes and the data were coded and reorganized according to Kvale and Brinkmann's (2008) aforementioned analysis processes. As the direct participant observations were conducted and used as supplementary data to interviews, the results from participant interviews were only reflected in comparison to interview findings. The researcher gained no further independent insights or information specifically through the direct participant observation data.

The researcher further analyzed organizational and FFSA program documents by comparing them with interview data and direct participant observation data as a means of triangulation. For example, themes and actual outcomes that emerged from the interview data were checked against the expected outcomes listed in official documents. Because organizational documents were used to verify alignment with and divergence from interview data, the research coded the documents with the emergent themes from interview data.

Given the logistical difficulty in returning to South Africa to access the Gansbaai program a second time, the researcher made member checking available for all study participants who had the means to do so. Member checking is the process of allowing interview respondents to review their transcribed interview and to verify that the information is accurately represented (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2008). Further, member checking includes the process of the researcher verifying any data that may be unclear with any interview respondent. All administrators provided the researcher with email and telephone contact information for member checking purposes. No program participants provided the researcher with contact information, due to their lack of access to technology and electronic mail. The Confederate gave the researcher the option to contact the FFSA should any significant issues occur with the data. In the end, no member checking was necessary for this study.

Ethical considerations are paramount when conducting academic research, as researchers have a responsibility to ensure no unnecessary harm in any manner is placed upon research participants. In this study, the researcher gained REB approval as ethical considerations were relatively minor. While there was little risk of physical harm to participants in this study, there was a slightly higher potential for risk of psychological harm to participants due to the critical nature of questions that were asked of them. Ethically, it was understood that the Gansbaai program is sport related; and thus, there are associated physical risks according to the nature of sport. This study did not intensify those physical risks however, the study did introduce the potential for psychological harm in the form of emotional trauma or social implications. For example, respondents could have experienced psychological harm from the research probing emotionally difficult experience or a sensitive topic. Or perhaps respondents endured unfamiliar and

exhaustive interviews. To that end, there were several ways in which this risk was mitigated.

The first way the researcher mitigated the potential risk of psychological harm occurred prior to the study's commencement. Each respondent received a letter of informed consent (see Appendix D) to ensure he or she understood the study's purpose and procedures. The researcher gave each respondent a letter in person before the interview started. This letter of informed consent requested permission from participants to digitally record and transcribe the interview conversation so that the transcribed data could be used in the final analysis. The researcher was transparent in preemptively addressing any questions or concerns and notified participants about how the recorded and transcribed data were to be used.

The researcher further mitigated the potential risk of psychological harm caused as a result of the interviews by ensuring there were qualified support staff members on-site to consult or counsel interviewees if necessary and made participants aware that such counsel was available. Counsel was established with the Confederate's assistance before interviews were conducted. The Confederate invited a representative from a local health clinic to be available on-site for the duration of the interviews to serve in this role. Furthermore, the researcher clarified to participants that they could terminate their interview if they endured any emotional struggle or distress during the actual interview itself. No distressful situations occurred during the interview process with any study participant.

As this study was framed with a critical paradigm, the potential existed for a participant, official, or an administrator to react negatively. Specifically, interview respondents were potentially at risk of harm when the study's results were released, due

to any backlash caused from the critique of the FFSA. The researcher addressed this risk by implementing Neuman's (2005) suggestion to create anonymity on behalf of the study's respondents by using false names or pseudonyms. Furthermore, the researcher ensured confidentiality by storing the data on a USB memory drive that was password protected and solely accessible to the researcher. As well, the researcher saved electronic files in a secure online storage system to prevent data loss (i.e., due to a USB memory stick malfunction from being lost, stolen, or damaged). The researcher ensured these electronic files were also password protected and solely accessible to the researcher.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to determine the effectiveness of sport for delivery programming evaluation within one established program in Gansbaai, South Africa through critical and independent participant-driven evaluation. In this chapter, the findings of this research study will be presented. The results are outlined according to emergent themes analyzed from three data sources, including: semi structured interviews conducted with FFSA administrators and program participants, direct participant observations, and organizational documents (i.e., a variety of funding requests and organizational policies). In this chapter, emergent themes are outlined according to the three research questions guiding this study, including:

- 1) how are the needs of the local communities being addressed in the delivery of the program in Gansbaai, South Africa?
- 2) in providing sport for development programming, what social or cultural impact does this particular SDP program make on its participants?
- 3) how do the assumptions, beliefs, and biases of the program administrator(s) of the Gansbaai program affect its delivery and the potential outcome(s) for its participants?

Semi-structured interview data were collected from 17 individuals (i.e., FFSA administrators (n=3), coaches (n=2), and program participants (n=12)) of the Gansbaai program. Data collected from administrator and coach respondents were analyzed together to more accurately reflect the organizational structure, as it was observed that coaches and administrators share many day-to-day roles and responsibilities. As such, these data are represented as “Administrative Findings.”

Additional data collection processes included three weeks of direct participant observation, as well as gathering organizational documents including funding requests and organizational policies. All data were analyzed using Bloor and Brinkman's (2008) 3-step analysis process of: 1) meaning coding; 2) meaning condensation; and, 3) meaning interpretation. Documents were also analyzed in conjunction with these in-depth interview and direct participant observation data sources and then triangulated to examine data alignment and divergence. Emergent themes are presented in the following sections.

### **Case Study**

In the current study, the researcher used the case study approach; and as such, the parameters of the case study are identified in this section. This section will provide detail regarding the research trip, the FFSA, and further context that impacted the study. This study was conducted over a 3-week timeframe, from August 18<sup>th</sup> to September 12<sup>th</sup>, 2012. The FFSA, the organization studied, is located in Gansbaai, South Africa. Specifically, the research was conducted on the FFSA organization, as well as in the communities of Gansbaai, Masakhane, and Blompark. The communities vary in size of population, with Gansbaai accounting for approximately 8,000 residents, Masakhane accounting for approximately 12,000 residents, and Blompark accounting for approximately 5,000 residents.

The FFSA was founded in 2008, through the efforts of the (then) Chairman of the English Premier League. It was founded as a legacy component of the World Cup, which was hosted in 2010 in South Africa, and serves as a tool for grassroots sports and youth development in South Africa. The FFSA's vision is to support and initiate grassroots sport development in South Africa by means of empowering people through access to education, resources, facilities, and equipment. Further, the FFSA's mission includes four

components, including: 1) Integrating sport into schools, community by community, and thereby uplifting communities and empowering individuals, providing sport infrastructure to underprivileged communities, and encouraging education, social integration, and well-being; 2) Channeling football investment to football development; 3) Structuring football development and initiatives in coherent marketable projects; and, 4) Broadening the pool of professional players (Thematic Approach, n.d.).

The FFSA facilitates daily soccer, field hockey, and netball programs for youth from each of the aforementioned communities, with ages of program participants ranging from six years to 22 years of age. Additionally, the FFSA runs HIV/AIDS awareness programs to students in predominantly black and coloured schools, as well as provides travelling opportunities for program participants (e.g., trips to nature reserves and to the University in Cape Town). The FFSA employs both local coaches and international volunteers to provide programming. At the time of the study, the FFSA employed at least one coach from each of the three communities, representing a variety of racial groups. Volunteers were recruited by the FFSA administrators from all over the world, primarily Europe, through word of mouth and online advertising. The role of the coaches and volunteers in daily activities is very similar, working together to provide programming and instruction to program participants. Volunteers additionally update FFSA web content, write news releases, take photos, and carry out other administrative tasks.

The FFSA is funded through a variety of local partnerships, as well as through the English Premier League. Further, grants and funding are received through application to various development organizations, and administrators are responsible for completing these applications on a regular basis. Full financial information regarding budget was not available for this study.

In understanding how the FFSA operates and the types of programs run, it is relevant to identify that there are elements of both SDP and Development through Sport that exist within the organization. This study is couched as an SDP study, as the FFSA was originally intended to be an infrastructure and capacity building initiative for the Gansbaai region. The efforts to increase access to facilities and raise the profile of grass root sport in South Africa are elements of SDP. It is also recognized that a more individual approach has since developed, thus potentially categorizing the FFSA as a Development through Sport initiative, though for the purposes of this study, the FFSA is defined as an SDP program, based on the foundation upon which it was built.

### **Administrator Findings**

In this section, emergent themes arising from semi-structured interview data with FFSA administrators and coaches (i.e., three administrators and two coaches) are shared. Such themes outline how administrators conceptualize and deliver sport for development programming in Gansbaai and better identify how administrators conceive evaluation components within the FFSA. While one administrator was male, two administrators were female. All interviewees were between the ages 25 and 60 years. Both coaches were male and were between the ages of 25-45 years. Of the five administrators interviewed, two were black, two were white, and one was coloured.

The researcher learned through informal conversation with community members that the coloured population indicates a social class apart from solely black and solely white individuals. Wealthy individuals of black skin could be considered coloured, and conversely poor white skinned individuals could also be considered coloured. Three themes that emerged from these interview data include: 1) FFSA administrators' goals; 2)



social and cultural impact of the FFSA program on participants; and, 3) FFSA evaluation procedures. These themes are next described.

### **Administrators' Goals of the FFSA.**

All five administrators acknowledged an overall set of goals that the FFSA is trying to achieve. These goals are herein categorized as *primary*, *secondary*, or *tertiary* determined by the administrators' response frequency of such goals. Further, the researcher weighted these goals, as a reflection of how importantly they were expressed across multiple data sources, as well as informally discussed while the researcher was in South Africa. This process required the researcher to insert his own interpretations of the data, and value each goal from his own perspective. Many administrators recognized the *primary* goals of education, increased opportunity, and social integration, while fewer administrators expressed the *secondary* goals of life skill development and reduction of crime and the *tertiary* goals of development of coaches and expansion of the FFSA. See Table 2 for administrators' response frequency of these goals.

Table 2: FFSA Administrators' Goals

	Goal	Frequency of Response (%)	Number of Respondents
Primary Goals	Education/HIV and AIDS awareness	100	5 of 5
	Increased Opportunity for Youth	100	5 of 5
	Social Integration	80	4 of 5
Secondary Goals	Life Skill Development	60	3 of 5
	Reduction of Crime	60	3 of 5
Tertiary Goals	Development of Coaches	40	2 of 5
	Expansion of the FFSA	20	1 of 5

*Primary Goals.*

All respondents identified both education and increased opportunity for the youth as *primary* goals of the FFSA. Education was addressed as a primary goal for the FFSA, particularly in conjunction with participants' increased awareness toward HIV/AIDS. Efforts to achieve education were encouraged through initiatives including: supporting class attendance; providing opportunity to study at the FFSA clubhouse; and, providing children with educational opportunities outside Gansbaai, where children observe different occupations and lifestyles. As one respondent stated:

... through the sports and education, we open a whole new world for them, we show them this is what it looks like if you travel to Cape Town, there are kids here that also play sports, but also, look at the different kind of jobs you can do, you don't have to be a coach or a teacher or the things you know, you can become a marine biologist, or you could become a nature guide, or you could become a social worker, just all these different things, so our programs open up that part.

Administrators facilitate field trips to wildlife reserves, major cities, and special events such as World Cup games. Since partner organizations (e.g., ABSA Bank) or the FFSA pay for the costs of such educational trips, all children involved in FFSA programs may also participate in these field trips free of charge.

Four of five administrators identified an additional *primary* goal of social integration. This *primary* goal refers to the ideal situation of different social groups residing in Gansbaai (i.e., identified as coloured, black, or white) who come together to play sport through FFSA initiatives, thereby developing positive social relationships with one another. One respondent noted the racial divisions based on regions in Gansbaai, commenting:

it's divided into three. Blompark is for coloureds, Masakhane is for blacks, and there's the town for white people. It was divided like that 30 years back, or [a] long time ago. It was part of the Apartheid era. We are trying to unite people together through sport, so there are a lot of social issues. Right now you see hockey players are coloured. Soccer players are blacks. We're trying to put all those kids together on one field, so they start communicating.

Furthermore, the goal of overcoming racial segregation in order to foster social integration was described by another respondent, who stated:

the aim of the Football Foundation firstly was to engage these communities together to play sports. It is one of the best things. But at the moment they are not showing up. Especially for the black people like to play soccer, and the white they play rugby. And that is something that is not fitting together. Not in the same facility.

### ***Secondary Goals.***

In addition to these *primary* goals, administrators identified *secondary* goals, including life skill development and reduction of crime. These two themes of life skill development and reduction of crime were considered *secondary* goals for the FFSA, as administrators expressed them fewer times than the *primary* goals of education and increased opportunity for youth. Related to the theme of life skill development, administrators noted such desired initiatives as improving written and oral English skills, increased avoidance of drug use and criminal activity, enhanced work ethic, and improved computer skills. One administrator, concerned about future employability for youth, stated, “[we’re] focusing on the kids to speak English, what do you do if you don’t

speak English properly, what kind of job do you get? You're not even getting into any kind of college or tertiary education institute. So it's about teaching English."

Further, three of five administrators mentioned crime or illegal activities that are often a component of life in Gansbaai for many youth. For example, in South Africa, the illegal capture and sale of sea products (i.e., poaching) is an activity in which many unemployed people in the black community are engaged. One administrator highlighted poaching as a particular illegal activity that the FFSA tries to combat through education, noting:

they are poachers, illegal poachers. Most people in Masakhane do that. So I try to show the kids that is not going to help them, because that is illegal. Anything that is illegal is not right, so they mustn't join that, they need to go to school. Their priority is to go to school. That's what we are doing here. We are not only teaching them soccer. We are using soccer as a tool so that we can teach them, please, don't be poachers.

Further, administrators identified both teaching work ethic and learning computer skills as important to the contribution to life skill development. One administrator noted, "there are computer classes as well, where we teach them computers. At school, they don't have computers, so now they teach them computer as well. That is a goal of the Foundation."

### ***Tertiary Goals.***

In addition to the administrators' recognition of *primary* and *secondary* goals, fewer administrators recognized *tertiary* goals including the FFSA's expansion plans, and the FFSA's commitment to developing coaches professionally. One administrator identified an objective of the FFSA is to expand to develop new programs and deliver

them to additional areas, specifically expanding the geographical scope of FFSA programming. This administrator highlighted that an AIDS education initiative would expand to a new community outside of the Gansbaai region and suggested that the football and field hockey programs could be expanded to be delivered in distant communities as well.

Additionally, two administrators expressed both positive and negative perspectives when discussing the FFSA's commitment to the development of coaches. Clearly some administrators felt that the development of coaches was a positively perceived goal. One administrator noted:

also, we realize the importance of training for staff. I think that was quite a key change for us as well, not just on our kids but on the adults ... This breaking barriers program opportunity came up, where we had the opportunity to train other youth coaches as well. To provide an accredited training program for them.

Another administrator felt however, that while the development of coaches may be a goal, it is not successfully being implemented, noting:

we want to develop as coaches as well. It's been two years, three years that I've had level one. I need to improve, I need to go up, I need to have level two now. I need to have level three, you know? For example, [name of coach] doesn't have any level. It's called introduction courses, like training courses. But it doesn't have the sufficient level one, level two. We need to take coaches to attend accredited courses like coaches level one, SAFA [South African Football Association]. We've been asking for that since it started. There's nothing that is happening here.

### **Social and Cultural Impact of FFSA Programs on Participants and the Community.**

A second theme that emerged from administrator interview data was the concept of social and cultural impact of FFSA's programs on youth. Social and cultural impact is described as the ability to create and cultivate social connections and engage in interactions with others (Spaaj, 2012). Furthermore, social and cultural impact refers to the change in one's perception or attitude within a particular setting (Sanford, Armour, & Warmington, 2006). All five administrators felt their involvement in the program was successful in having a positive social and cultural impact on the childrens' lives. Specifically, the FFSA programming intentionally fosters these social and cultural interactions that influence changing perceptions, particularly through subthemes such as: the coach-player connection; the coaches' influence on social integration; and the importance of building trust. These subthemes, as reflected in administrator interviews, support the cultivation of social connections and the change in participants' perspectives.

#### ***Coach-Player Connection.***

All administrators discussed the importance of developing strong coach-player connections to improve the youths' experience and identified such connections as critical to affecting how the youth received the program. These coach-player connections were often linked with dealing with issues outside of the day-to-day, physical sport training, such as education and home life. One administrator noted:

that's often the contact that the coaches have with the children, because the children trust the coach. The coach becomes a mentor and then the coaches also know certain things you can handle. We've had cases where the coaches actually spoke to the parent. But if it's something that we feel they're not able to handle,

we refer it to the social worker. Or, if the child has, or tests positive for HIV for instance, we'd make sure ... the child confides in the coach.

***Coach's Influence on Social Integration.***

Another administrator commented on how the coach influences participants to interact with youth from other communities and provided the frequent example of a shy child who arrives at the training session and who is from a different racial group, and how racial tensions from the other children can arise. The administrator stated:

they've gotta monitor that very carefully, and that's why the kids should never ever play unsupervised. If the child comes, it should be very socially inclusive, and the coach should create that space for everybody to feel they are treated equally, that they get the opportunity to play, and so on. But mostly, I think that if a child comes and if that is safe, through the coach, then he is treated like everyone else.

Contrastingly, one administrator expressed the potential for negative impact that a coach may have on children as they interact with other children from different racial groups. For example, the administrator referred to a coach's past ineffectiveness in overcoming existing language barriers when he interacted with children from different racial groups, noting:

when [FFSA representative] was doing the research, they find that the coaches mistreated them. Because they were feeling not comparable. Instead of speaking English, they were speaking Xhosa. That was our mistake. The language barrier was a problem. They spoke Afrikaans, the coaches were speaking Xhosa. There is a confusion there.

As an extension of describing how the coaches had negatively impacted participants in the past, current practices were discussed to provide evidence that positive impact is occurring. For example, administrators currently recognize the need to view each youth individually, as one administrator noted:

I'm calling the boy who is coming, and introduce him to the other guys. And then support his participation. I'm not gonna judge for the first time, his performance. Always try to look for areas that is lacking. If I can see something, I can take them aside and show them. He must not be far from others, in terms of development and tactics. Because, if I can put him with the other guys that are already here, that would be a problem, he would be bullied. If he can't play, I take him aside, baby steps until he can mix in with the other boys.

***Importance of Building Trust.***

Additionally, one administrator discussed the significance of administrators building trust with program participants, stating, “you must always try to be on top of them, you must tell the truth, don't tell something that is not there. That is something that they can look at as coaches. The way you see, if you are always running around cheating, they lose hope.” This administrator further felt that it would be difficult for any coach to positively influence youth to continue their studies, come to training sessions, or stay out of the streets if he had not built a trusting relationship with them.

Further to the point of building trust, and in connection with the wider community, one administrator noted that the program participants' family members saw how the program positively influences them, stating:

I think there's a lot of influence, because first of all, they must participate and they see an example in the township ... most of the parents of the kids who are



here, they want their kids to come over to this side, to attend this school so they can be in our program.

Another administrator felt that the FFSA's impact on the community has increased over time. In discussing how the community members responded when the FFSA was first founded, the administrator stated:

In the beginning, yeah it was difficult. The people in Masakhane didn't like the Football Foundation. They hated, because they said a lot of things. Like why do you go there, because these people are taking a lot of money. You don't get anything, but they didn't see the other way, the Football Foundation is helping them. They have clothes, they have boots. People are donating. Everything is going for the kids. Some of them, their parents can't afford them. The boots.

The Football Foundation is here to help. It has changed a lot.

According to another administrator however, work remains in creating a larger community impact, aside from program participants, particularly amongst parents and caregivers. In discussing how youth develop friendships during their time at the FFSA, one administrator talked about how parents influence their children, regardless of the FFSA's outcomes, noting:

the children, you can teach as much as they want, but they still go back to their homes. And their parents have certain conceptions ... We've seen it so many times, where the children change and accept the other kids, and they become good friends. They go back home, and the parents say derogatory or racial things about the other people, and you won't believe it but the next day the child comes back and says something.

This administrator felt that the biggest improvements are still needed in the realm of educating parents. All administrators spoke about the social and cultural impact on both the individual participants and the community, including overcoming language barriers, building trust, and parental involvement.

### **FFSA Program Evaluation Procedures.**

A final emergent theme from administrators related to program evaluation procedures. While all administrators discussed evaluation in some capacity, they expressed divergent opinions as to the extent of the current program evaluation procedures and to the FFSA's overall effectiveness in developing better programs and program delivery. Some administrators perceived that program evaluation was taking place and was part of an efficient process; however, this perception was not consistently held among all administrators.

For example, one administrator noted positive components about the existing evaluation procedures and described the different evaluation methods being carried out in the FFSA, including coach and coordinator questionnaires, anonymous feedback, and observation. This administrator also noted coaches' practice of outlining their own goals, which are self-monitored through weekly meetings and the coaches' additional practice of anonymously evaluating coordinators and the project manager as another component of organizational evaluation. The administrator noted that the evaluation works because of the structures available, stating:

so coaches give feedback on management and how they feel things are working, if they feel treated well, if they feel their opinions are being valued, all of that stuff.

Then there it is in terms of management of the coaches, and that is what we use to do performance appraisals.

While this administrator's description of current evaluation processes (i.e., anonymous peer feedback, management and self-evaluation, observations and weekly meetings) seemed inclusive and comprehensive, other administrators described opposite practices. For example, when the researcher asked one administrator about general evaluation that existed in the FFSA, the individual responded:

we used to have a monthly report and that is not happening anymore. I think we need to start it again. You write what you witnessed, what you want to achieve, which players were performing well. We used to write it and give it to the Project Manager so that we can see the progress, if it is working or not working. Then we stop, and I don't know why.

This administrator further discussed specific evaluation processes that do not exist for coaches and administrators, revealing:

yeah, we don't have that, really. We are not appreciated, what we are doing. We keep on trying, but if someone is telling you, that here and here you are doing good job, but you must improve here. So you know where you are. But if you are not told, then you might do good, and tomorrow not good. So I think one of those things we need to address, and then you see how individuals perform as a coach.

Another administrator also spoke negatively about the current evaluation processes and identified a perceived lack of interest in using evaluation data to improve the FFSA programs, stating:

we're just given a form, where you want to be in five years, how is the program developed, it's only few questions asking about the program, and what you think can be done to improve the program and all that stuff. And what do you think can

be done to improve you as coaches, like that. And we always fill out the form as coaches, but there is nothing that is happening after that.

Overall, administrators perceived differences regarding specific program evaluation processes and expressed divergent opinions about how consistently evaluation occurs, about the relevancy of the evaluation, and the FFSA's actual interest in conducting evaluation. In the next section, emergent themes from participant interviews are outlined.

### **Participant Findings**

In this section, emergent themes analyzed from interview data with a total of 12 program participants are outlined. All interviewees were male, between the ages of 18 and 22 years. No female FFSA participants who were registered in FFSA programs at the time of the study were of age to participate in the study. Nine of the 12 participants were black and three were coloured. During the course of the study, no white youth were participating in FFSA programs and thus did not participate.

Five themes emerged from interview data with program participants, including: 1) the coaches' role and influence on participants' life skill development; 2) the importance of competition to program participants; 3) program evaluation; 4) the influence of the FFSA on program participants' home life; and, 5) the influence of the FFSA on social integration. Analyzing these themes allows for a better understanding of participants' perspectives on the program components that are both effectively and ineffectively implemented and allows for a more complete understanding of how the FFSA operates. See Table 3, which highlights the frequency of program participant responses to these five themes.

Table 3: Emergent Themes for Participants' Interviews

Themes	Positive Responses	Negative Responses	Number of Responses	Frequency of Response (%)
Coaches' Role and Influence on Life Skill Development	11	1	12 of 12	100
Importance of Competition to Program Participants	10	0	10 of 12	83.33
Program Evaluation	1	9	10 of 12	83.33
Influence of the FFSA on Home Life	8	1	9 of 12	75
Influence of the FFSA on Social Integration	5	2	7 of 12	58.33

### **FFSA's Coaches' Role and Influence on Participants' Life Skill Development.**

The most prevalent theme that emerged from interview data with program participants related to the significance of the coach-player relationship. Twelve of 12 program participants recognized the coach and his interaction with them as a significant component of their experience with the FFSA. While 11 of 12 program participants responded with positive opinions about the coaches, one program participant responded with a negative opinion. Participants' positive opinions about coaches included such descriptive aspects as "hard work" (i.e., "they told me to work hard to be participant of the team, so it's good to be here"), "supporting participants with equipment" (i.e., "Good word about the coaches. Because they do supply us with the clothes we need to play soccer. And they give us the boots to play soccer. And they are good to us"), and

“physical fitness” (i.e., “they help me a lot on my fitness. I like them, I think they are good”).

The sole program participant who expressed a negative opinion about his coach, stated: “he does not like me. I come to session and play here, and he makes harder. He says play different, and I don't understand, and he laughs. I don't like playing for him, but I want to be part of Foundation.” Additionally, all program participants, even the individual who described his coach negatively, referred to the coaches and the training programs as helping to develop their life skills in some capacity. All provided examples of coaches who had positively impacted their life skill development in such areas including: working hard; doing well in school; cultivating better interactions with different cultures; and, staying away from drugs. All program participants also described the FFSA itself as being a positive influence and as helping them to develop these life skills. One participant noted how the FFSA had helped him with education, stating:

They would organize the clubhouse to study after training. And they would supply us with food so that we cannot be starved while we study. I found it helpful because here, it's quieter than Masakhane, because in Masakhane some community members are playing loud music, so we cannot concentrate on what we are doing, but here it's fine when we came to study. We study as a team, especially when it's math, we help one another. And we will ask the coaches questions if we don't understand.

No program participants responded with negative opinions regarding the FFSA's influence on their life skill development.

**The Importance of Competition to Participants.**

Another theme uncovered from program participants' interview data was their need to play competitive matches. The majority of respondents spoke to this need, generally stating that they felt one of the purposes of the FFSA was to help them develop as professional players. Program participants often reflected their need for more matches to be organized, where scouts and coaches from professional teams could attend the game and see them play. One respondent noted:

I think they could sit together and get sponsorships, so that the whole Foundation can go away and play matches with the higher teams. They can also organize some trials for us. We don't want to just play here in Foundation, we want to go forward, so we can become famous one day.

As most program participants predominantly expressed a desire to continue their football careers beyond the FFSA and achieve professional player status, they perceived the FFSA as a viable place to be recognized by scouting professionals during matches.

**Participants' Perceptions of Program Evaluation.**

A majority of program participants expressed negative perceptions about the depth and frequency of program evaluation that is being carried out by the FFSA. Ten of 12 program participants discussed evaluation in some manner, while two did not discuss evaluation at all. All program participants who discussed evaluation responded that participant inclusive program evaluation (i.e., where participants evaluate the programming) was not currently occurring, nor had it ever occurred in their time as an FFSA participant. One respondent recalled being asked questions several years ago (i.e., he answered a survey of questions pertaining to what sports should be offered and what times were best to have training sessions) and clarified that no other questions regarding

an evaluation of coaches, staff, or the program were asked on the same survey. Program participants who discussed evaluation noted they had never participated in a formal feedback effort before these current interviews, nor had administrators or coaches asked them to provide insight about program improvements at any time.

### **FFSA's Influence on Participants' Home Life.**

Another theme that emerged through program participant interviews was the FFSA's influence on their respective home lives. Eight of 12 program participants (75%) identified that being a part of the FFSA influenced their home life positively. One program participant commented:

My parents think it is good. When I'm in the community, they are thinking I can rape someone. So that's why they bring me here. Because here I spend a lot of time training. When I come back home, I help clean, I study my work, so that's why they love it.

Many program participants stated their parents saw the FFSA programming and coaches as a positive influence on children and felt favourably about their children spending time at the field instead of spending time in the streets within the community. One program participant described the difference between his own and his brother's situations, and how the FFSA has influenced his parents. When referring to the impact that his participation in the FFSA program has had on his parents, this program participant highlighted that his parents are happier with his participation in the FFSA program than with his brother's involvement in crime in Cape Town, stating:

my family came here to be in school and to be with Football Foundation. I go to training and come home, I don't go to the street to do the bad things. He [his



brother] is still Cape Town with the things he was doing there, and it's not a good thing for my family.

Program participants also expressed how their parents simultaneously hold negative perceptions of the FFSA. For example, one participant referred to how his grandfather perceives the FFSA's efforts to bring the three communities together, stating:

He is from old time, when there was hatred and violence. He does not want me to make friends here. He thinks football is [an] excuse to not do other things. He thinks the Foundation is not doing anything for me, and I am just wasting time here. He says they just take money and give nothing, but he does not see the kit and boots. I think he does not want there to be peace between us.

#### **FFSA's Influence on Social Integration Amongst Participants.**

Another theme that emerged from program participants' interviews is the FFSA's influence on how the program participants view each other and how they integrate socially. Seven of the 12 (58.33%) program participants discussed how being a part of the FFSA has changed their perception of people from different racial backgrounds and cultures. Of the program participants who discussed how the FFSA has impacted how they view social integration (i.e., spending time with people from other racial backgrounds), a number reported a positive impact. One participant noted:

We did play as a team, we didn't have any problem with that. Because sometimes when you are going out, we mix, and we talk to them. We're not separating ourselves from them. It's because of the Foundation, they say we are one culture here. And respect one another's culture.

Many program participants identified involvement in the FFSA as beneficial to making friends from other communities. One program participant discussed how he was able to make friends, stating:

we played with Blompark, other team from the locations, from Malawi and Santos. I like playing with them because we know each other, and we laugh in the field. We don't fight. I like playing with them because we have a lot of friendship. Football is all about friendship. If I didn't play ball here, I would know no persons. When I came here, there were guys playing soccer, and they introduced me to other people, and then I knew people.

Conversely, some respondents felt that participating in the FFSA hindered their ability to integrate with other communities. For example, one participant stated:

I have a few friends from Blompark, coloured friends. And here in Masakhane I have lots of friends, cuz [sic] we are playing soccer and games. We spend time together after school when we are doing schoolwork. Then we have time to chat and have fun. The time changed a lot because I don't have a lot of time to see them [friends from Blompark] because I am busy with training sessions. But it tells me at the end of the day to keep myself fit, stay away from drugs and alcohol ... and focus on my soccer.

From these emergent themes among program participant interviews, it appears as though the FFSA has had an impact on social integration, both positive and negative.

### **Summary of Findings**

Several themes emerged from an analysis of interview data from both FFSA administrator and program participants. Three themes emerged from administrator interviews including: FFSA administrators' goals; social and cultural impact of the FFSA

program on participants; and, FFSA evaluation procedures. The first theme of FFSA administrators' goals focused on *primary*, *secondary*, and *tertiary* goals, which administrators reflected to varying degrees. The second theme of social and cultural impact of the FFSA program on participants was reflected by subthemes including the coach-player connection, the coaches' influence on social integration, and the importance of building trust. The third theme of FFSA program evaluation procedures reflected administrators' divergent perceptions regarding the extent to which program evaluation is being carried out within the FFSA. Specifically, some administrators held impressions that multiple program evaluation components were being implemented, while others perceived virtually no program evaluation components were being implemented.

Five themes emerged from an analysis of interview data with participants including: the coach's role and influence on life skill development; importance of competition to program participants; program evaluation; influence of the FFSA on home life; and the influence of the FFSA on social integration. Program participants discussed the first theme of the coaches' role and the influence on life skill development as positive and reflected both on- and off- field initiatives. Program participants perceived the second theme as highly important, such that the purpose of the FFSA was to arrange competitive matches to help develop their professional careers. Through a third theme of program evaluation, program participants revealed that they had largely not been included in any program evaluation processes at any time during their participation. Regarding the fourth theme related to the influence of the FFSA on participants' home life, participants reflected overall positive impressions on such influence. Some negative impressions however, were also shared. Finally, related to the fifth theme of the influence

of the FFSA on social integration, just over half of program participants viewed the FFSA's influence on social integration as positive.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **DISCUSSION**

Limited research has been conducted within the sport for development and peace (SDP) field related to the evaluation of sport for development programming (Coalter, 2010; Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010; Levermore, 2008a; Spaaj, 2009). As such, the findings from the current case study, an independent evaluation of a sport for development program in Gansbaai, South Africa, conducted from a critical perspective, provide an empirical contribution to the SDP literature. The two purposes of this chapter are to: first, relate themes from interview data to both the two other data sources (i.e., direct participant observations and organizational documents) collected and to existing theory and research; and second, to contextualize the findings within existing literature.

This chapter is presented in four sections. In the first section, a discussion of demographic findings is provided and from such findings, potential areas of improvement are highlighted for the FFSA to consider. In the second section, a discussion of the alignment and divergence between data sources is outlined and further identifies issues for the FFSA to consider. In the third section, a discussion of both administrators' and program participants' perceptions on program evaluation initiatives follows, which assists in determining the current state of program evaluation within this SDP organization. In the fourth section, a discussion of emergent themes is linked to the research questions of the study.

#### **Discussion of Demographic Findings**

One area of discussion relates to the demographic findings gathered from study participants. Interview data were collected from five administrators who represented a heterogeneous group of white, coloured, and black study participants. Specifically, two

female and three male study participants of varying ages (i.e., representing an age range between 22 years to over 70 years) were interviewed. Additionally, interviews were conducted with 12 male program participants, representing an age range between 18 years and 22 years. As mentioned, no female program participants involved in FFSA programs at the time of the current study were old enough to participate.

Administrators discussed the lack of older female program participants and expressed the belief that there is a need to improve the overall degree of participation of both girls and women in FFSA programming. The paucity of female participation in the FFSA found in this study is aligned with Hargreaves' (1997) observations that female participation in sport has traditionally been marginalized in South Africa. Kehler (2001) highlights that poverty is a major issue faced by females in South Africa, particularly among black females in rural communities. Mubangizi (2008) further argues that such poverty is a direct result of the Apartheid era and is shaped by the various economic opportunities, political movements, and laws of that time. While Apartheid laws were not gender specific, Anunobi (2003) argues that many men earned a living working in cities and mines, while women cared for family members and earned a living farming in rural areas. Despite the abolishment of Apartheid law, women remained living in rural areas of South Africa, where access to resources and opportunities are generally scarce.

Hargreaves (1997) supports the notion that the Apartheid had a significant impact on the women's sport movement in South Africa. For example, one outcome of Apartheid policies was to effectively hinder the movement of non-whites into white dominated areas. Mechanisms to ensure that this outcome would be met were implemented simultaneously to the South African government's investment in building sport facilities specifically in white dominated areas, which ultimately reduced the ability

of non-whites to use such facilities (Ramsamy, 1982). Further, Hargreaves (1997) notes that existing facilities in black or coloured dominated communities were shared facilities, and the use of such space was dominated by men for male sports, which ultimately left very little opportunity for any women (particularly black and coloured) to participate.

Hargreaves (1997) notes that women's inability to obtain sponsorship for equipment, travel, or food were further obstacles to their participation in sport. Without sponsorship assistance, women struggled to afford the fees to rent space to participate, the travelling fees to compete, or feeding themselves and their children during sport events. While Hargreaves (1997) acknowledges some groups of women overcame such challenges by sharing resources amongst team or group members, the financial burden that women encountered was an evident barrier to their sport participation.

The lack of female participation in sport is significant, particularly from a demographic perspective of the increasing population of women within South Africa. According to the 2011 Census of South Africa, the female population is growing in comparison to men, and females are more consistently living past the age of 35 years. Given that women are more consistently living longer than men, it should be recognized that females may be responsible for more active roles in the future labour force (Collinson, Tollman, & Kahn, 2007), as well as potentially occupying future leadership roles, particularly in the clothing industry (Marais, 2008) and government (McEwan, 2002).

Since sport provides intangible leadership benefits (Beutler, 2008; Giulianotti, 2011), improving the infrastructure (i.e., providing more opportunity and better access to facilities) to better foster increased female participation may also increase the future impact of South African women on a societal level. By fostering their participation,

thereby fostering the development of these intangible skills, women may be potentially better equipped to handle these labour and leadership roles than they would be without the influence of organizations such as the FFSA.

With an understanding of the growing number of women reaching working age, and their changing work roles in South Africa and the significance sport could play in women's development, it is important to recognize how the lack of female participation within the FFSA may impact the Gansbaai region. While currently very few girls or women participate in the FFSA programs (e.g., netball remains the sole female sport and it is poorly attended), there is an opportunity for FFSA administrators to address some of the barriers identified within FFSA documents and acknowledged by Hargreaves (1997). Recognizing that females may assume community leadership roles in the future in Gansbaai (Collinson et al., 2007; McEwan, 2002), efforts to draw females, specifically from the black and coloured communities, to participate in FFSA programs should be explored. One such recommendation would be to expand the opportunity for women and girls to participate in other sports (e.g., soccer and field hockey). Moreover, integrating females into co-ed participation opportunities or providing opportunity for females to participate in their own soccer or field hockey sessions could positively influence female participation in the FFSA.

In addition to discussing the lack of female participants, the findings related to racial composition of FFSA program participants is worth discussing. Of the 12 male program participants who were 18 years of age—and thus old enough to participate in the current study—nine were black and three were coloured. Those who participated were primarily drawn from currently established FFSA soccer and field hockey teams. No white program participants were involved in this study; and furthermore, no white



program participants were involved in FFSA activities, which were observed daily.

Merrett, Tatz, and Adair (2011) identify that among the South African population, soccer is viewed as the sport with which the black population identifies and predominantly plays, whereas field hockey and rugby are the sports with which the white population primarily identifies and predominantly plays. One administrator identified this distinction as occurring within the FFSA and noted that white youth do not come to the fields because the FFSA no longer offers regular rugby programs, otherwise offered in the schools in the white community.

Though racial allegiance may have some bearing in sport preference, a potentially more valuable argument for why white participants are not involved in FFSA programming may be that sport preference is more aligned with class, from the perspective of access and opportunity in schools and clubs. Another administrator referred to the quality of South African schools as a factor influencing the current overall racial composition of FFSA program participants. Armstrong, Lambert, and Lambert (2011) have identified that physical education and sport is part of the life skills component of the curriculum in white schools; however, Walter (2011) notes a lack of quality physical education and sport exists in disadvantaged communities, where non-white youth live, and Fredericks (1996) additionally argues that there is a distinct lack of facilities in black and coloured schools, and physical education is not part of the curriculum in these schools.

While an integrated secondary school (grades nine through 12) exists in the Gansbaai area, three elementary schools (grades one through eight) are still largely segregated by race within the community. In light of Walter's (2011) and Fredericks' (1996) observations, this segregation may lead to a gap in the number of equivalent after-

school sport programs available to each community below the secondary school level. One FFSA administrator highlighted that white participants are not engaged in FFSA programs because their sport needs are satisfied by existing after-school sport programs in white schools. As a result, white participants may engage in specific FFSA activities only, such as FFSA hosted tournaments and special holiday events, which only occur every few months, whereas black participants are engaged in daily programs with the FFSA, given the fewer numbers of sport programs available in black schools.

Recognizing that an imbalance exists as to how after-school sport programming is delivered in elementary schools to each specific racial group, the FFSA should explore the impact that this imbalance has on participants who partake in FFSA programming. While the FFSA predominantly serves non-white communities, it is not drawing white youth to the programs; perhaps because their sport needs are already being met through their educational institution. While it was found that FFSA administrators have reached out to school administrators in the white community about developing such school soccer, rugby, and field hockey programs, administrators of predominantly white schools have resisted these efforts. Such resistance, as related through informal conversation between the researcher and FFSA administrators, originates from the white administrators' perceived lack of value in interacting with non-white participants, specifically in the use of their facilities.

Linking again to Hargreaves' (1997) argument regarding females' restricted access to sport facilities, Archer and Boullion (1982) argue that similar restrictions exist for non-white sport participants. The FFSA has made some efforts to collaborate with administrators of predominantly white schools to promote shared facility use and program offerings, but little progress has been made. Moreover, the FFSA does not have

the resources to pay for the use of privately owned facilities located in the white community. Use of these facilities would be important, because they are better equipped to accommodate rugby and field hockey programming, which the FFSA currently delivers to participants from all three communities on shared space on one field.

The lack of white participants in FFSA programs is concerning for a number of reasons. First, social integration is a primary theme and goal for the FFSA, it is important for participants representing all three communities be included in sport programming. Recognizing each community's unique sport preferences and creating opportunity for both education (i.e., giving youth from non-traditional communities an opportunity to learn how to play) and competition (i.e., allowing participants to compete in sanctioned games and tournaments), may stimulate a more effective integration of youth from each community. One recommendation would be to potentially rotate sport program offerings for the youth that are coming to the field (i.e., hosting soccer and field hockey sessions less frequently and allowing opportunity for rugby and cricket more often). In this way, more youth may be drawn to participate, and those who already participate may learn different sports.

Second, and on a broader level, an enhanced integration of sport participants within FFSA programs may reflect efforts being made in a wider social context. By successfully integrating white, black, and coloured participants in the sport context, a more effective integration may be achieved outside sport (e.g., within the mixed high school in Gansbaai). This is particularly important considering Lefko-Everett's (2012) argument that overcoming racism and improving the social relations between different races amongst South Africans is done through public spaces such as schools, churches, and sport fields.

Third, within a broader social context it is important to consider how individual FFSA program participants are impacted from a dearth of white participants. Lefko-Everett (2012) notes that teaching youth to view different racial groups in a non-racist manner is critical to overcoming racial barriers. As individuals, FFSA coaches and administrators represent teachers and role models to program participants. When administrators demonstrate to participants that including white participants is not a priority, it may cause participants to develop a negative perspective regarding integration. Instead, administrators encouraging inclusion of white participants through program offerings and educational efforts may achieve a more positive and integrated perspective among non-white program participants. A recommendation for the FFSA could include training coaches to be more intentional about encouraging white participation in the program, particularly to those current participants who frequently interact with white youth in the mixed high school in Gansbaai.

As the FFSA represents both a public space and a significant educational component of participants' lives, it is critical that the FFSA makes efforts to undertake future research to explore partnerships with white schools, similar to partnerships the FFSA has currently established with black and coloured primary schools, in an effort to better achieve the organization's primary goal of social integration.

### **Triangulation of Data Sources**

Cohen and Manion (1986) define triangulation as an effort to more fully explain the richness and complexity of a set of information. Bryman (2003) further notes that triangulation is a useful concept for validating and cross-checking results. By engaging in triangulation in the current study, an extensive program evaluation of the FFSA was undertaken that may not have been possible with the use of only one data source

(Vikstrom, 2010). In order to understand the data sources used in this study, each source must be considered in comparison the other two to verify how evaluation has been both historically and currently carried out.

Thus, an analysis of interview data was triangulated with an analysis of organizational documents (i.e., FFSA policy documents, funding requests, web site information) to explore existing alignment and divergence between such data sources. This effort provided a better understanding of where the FFSA's organizational values and goals were aligned or where they were divergent. By exploring these values and goals, implications regarding organizational efficiencies, consistencies, and potential areas of concern were uncovered. As such, alignment was found between both administrator and program participant interview and organizational document data sources for the emergent themes of: social integration, increased opportunity for youth, education, life skill development, and reduction of crime.

#### **Alignment Between Data Sources.**

For example, as stated in FFSA funding requests and organizational policy documents, the primary goals of the FFSA are to: "1) Bring about positive social change in the diverse local community; 2) Inspire and empower youth to make positive choices; and 3) Develop youth leadership by providing structured opportunities and mentoring." These three goals were found as consistent themes across multiple data sources. For example, all FFSA administrators interviewed expressed these three primary goals. As well, these three goals directly aligned with the themes of social integration and increased opportunity for youth. The frequency of these particular emergent themes provides support for the importance of these primary goals to both FFSA administrators and the organization as a whole.

As such, when these themes and goals are linked to the SDP literature, the FFSA's overall efforts are considered legitimate. For example, scholars like Guest (2009) and Schulenkorf (2010) recognize that SDP programs address and even improve local social issues (e.g., racism and social inequality) and promote participants' leadership skills and abilities to make more knowledgeable and informed decisions (Woodcock, Cronin, & Forde, 2012). As the FFSA reflects these acknowledged benefits, this organization may be considered as having a positive impact on the Gansbaai community.

Additionally, administrators were directly observed to promote education as they verbally encouraged program participants to attend classes and to complete their homework. These direct participant observations were aligned with the theme of "education", which emerged from administrator interviews. While administrators did not speak directly to education as a *primary* goal, they promoted education and learning for program participants within their interviews. As well, an analysis of a significant number of FFSA documents yielded descriptions of how the FFSA has been involved in various HIV/AIDS programs, both in hosting educational sessions within schools, as well as facilitating HIV/AIDS testing for youth in the community. Moreover, all administrators spoke about promoting HIV/AIDS awareness with program participants, considered an important component of what the FFSA is trying to accomplish.

Additionally, alignment was evident between questionnaire survey results found in FFSA documents from 2010 and administrators' and program participants' perceptions in interviews regarding the theme of life skill development. Survey results indicated that the FFSA supports several aspects of life skills (i.e., "keeps kids away from streets"; "prevents kids from getting into drugs and alcohol"; "learn discipline and respect"; and "learn to socialize and behave well"). Administrators similarly reflected life skill

development (i.e., keeping youth off the streets, socialization skills) and program participants reflected that the FFSA helped youth “learn to play together,” as well as “not get into drugs and crime.” Moreover, through direct participant observations, it was found that FFSA administrators intentionally foster life skill development on occasions where they were seen individually speaking with program participants about the negative aspects about drugs, the need to interact with elder community members respectfully, and the need to stay away from the community of poachers in Musakhane.

Spaaj and Jeanes (2013) highlight the extensive importance and use of education within SDP programs related to social, personal, and health initiatives. Further, Bailey (2006) argues that SDP programming can make significant contributions to developing physical, lifestyle, affective, social, and cognitive skills. More specifically, Gould and Carson (2008) discuss life skill development as a key outcome in properly delivered SDP programming. Recognizing that the SDP literature supports life skill development and education initiatives lends legitimacy to the FFSA’s focus on delivering educational outcomes such that program participants develop their life skills that otherwise may remain undeveloped if they were not part of the FFSA. Further, direct participant observations supported the FFSA’s intentional efforts to facilitate this life skill development (e.g., notable change in a new program participant’s behaviour and attitude toward other field hockey players from different communities over the three week study period).

Further analysis of FFSA documents supports the secondary goal of reducing crime and keeping youth off the street. Youth crime is identified as a significant challenge in South Africa (Burton, 2007; Clark, 2012; Leoschut & Bonora, 2007). As such, references to crime rates in Gansbaai and to efforts of removing youth from

criminal activity were found within funding applications and FFSA policies. Specifically, administrators identified the crime of poaching during interviews, which was also articulated within funding requests. The alignment found between these data sources may show at least partial agreement between administrators' perceptions and stated FFSA goals. These consistencies may indicate that the FFSA recognizes that potential involvement in poaching is a challenge to participation (i.e., participants pulled away from training to assist in poaching activities). As a result, administrators are making efforts to overcome this challenge by encouraging participants to avoid involvement in poaching, as reinforced in FFSA documents.

Regarding the role of the FFSA coach, alignment was found between program participants' interview responses and direct participant observation. All program participants identified that the FFSA coaches had an overwhelmingly positive and significant impact on their FFSA related experiences. While many program participants discussed the coaches' impact with on-field support (i.e., technical expertise and training, tactics, football skill improvements), they also highlighted the coaches' impact and mentorship on off-field matters. Program participants' insights here support research on the impact of sport on youth, suggesting that the coach plays a critical role in developing off-field qualities such as confidence, character, and positive psychological capacities (Vella, Oades, & Crowe, 2011).

Through further analysis of FFSA documents and direct participant observation (e.g., coaches observed interacting with program participants outside of training sessions, personal conversations with program participants), additional support was found for the coaches' impact as role models for FFSA participants. These findings lend support that the FFSA is invested in program participants' lives beyond their involvement at the



FFSA facility. Given that scholars recognize the coach as a key individual who influences broader educational impacts within SDP programming (Lyle, 2008; Rutten et al., 2007), it should be noted that FFSA administrators evidently have an extensive influence in the greater community. Arguably, through fostering positive relationships between coaches and participants, FFSA administrators make strong efforts to further program participants' educational development, thus promoting a better future for the youth in Gansbaai.

### **Divergence Between Data Sources.**

While alignment was found between data sources for the themes of social integration, increased opportunity for youth, and education, divergence in data sources was also found. Specifically, divergence was found between administrators' interview data and FFSA document data related to the themes of development of coaches and expansion of the FFSA. Moreover, divergence was found between program participant interview data and FFSA document data related to the importance of competition theme.

The first divergence found between administrator interview data and FFSA documents related to the development of FFSA coaches. First, two of five administrators addressed the development of coaches, from opposing views. One administrator suggested that the FFSA operates a successful coaching development program and provides coaches with opportunities for growth and additional training courses, while the other administrator highlighted that no opportunities for growth or furthering coaching credentials have been provided for coaches for several years. The three remaining administrators did not mention development of coaches as an FFSA goal during their respective interviews.

Upon an analysis of FFSA documents however, the theme of coaches' development was found featured within several funding documents and online sources. Furthermore, these FFSA documents highlight that several levels of training are available for coaches, both on- and off-field. Specifically, the FFSA espouses that coaches have opportunities to travel to clinics, participate in development courses at local universities, and attain upgrades to coaching certifications. This divergence found between administrators' interview data and FFSA document data reflects that while developing coaches is an espoused goal of the FFSA, it does not appear to be either foremost in administrators' thinking or practiced to the degree it is espoused.

The second divergence found between administrator interview data and FFSA documents related to the goal of FFSA expansion. While only one of five administrators discussed the FFSA's expansion plans to any degree, details around expansion plans were highlighted in multiple funding requests, including new programs and costs related to travel expenses and coaches' salaries. Four of five administrators made no mention of expanding FFSA program offerings; indeed, it appears as though the expansion plans detailed within FFSA documents have not been enacted to this point.

One divergence that appeared between program participant interview data and FFSA document data related to the importance of competition theme. Ten of 12 program participants identified that while advancing their football playing careers was important, they had not been given opportunities to try out for additional teams. Program participants further reflected there has been little opportunity to advance through competitive matches and have scouts from higher level teams observe the games, even though "broadening the pool of professional players" in South Africa is a stated goal in FFSA funding and policy documents.

By exploring the various ways in which the FFSA was either aligned across multiple data sources (i.e., fostering education and achieving FFSA goals; life skill development; reduction of crime) or was divergent across multiple data sources (i.e., development of coaches; expansion of the FFSA, importance of competition), a better understanding of the organization was reached. Specifically, identifying areas of alignment within the FFSA allows for a more accurate focus on potential solutions for areas of inconsistency (i.e., FFSA administrators can focus on areas that have shown misalignment). By recognizing successes and by highlighting shortcomings, the FFSA may be provided with a framework from which they may build on their programs.

### **Program Evaluation Existing within the FFSA**

In the current study, program evaluation processes existing within the FFSA were studied through collection and analysis of various data sources. In this section, the current evaluation processes utilized by the FFSA are discussed through an analysis and cross-referencing of interviews with FFSA administrators and program participants, direct participant observation and FFSA documents. While a variety of evaluation procedures are described, it is also relevant to examine how FFSA stakeholders perceive the evaluation processes within the organization.

From an analysis of FFSA documents (i.e., funding requests, program manuals, organizational policies, and online material), it was found that different FFSA evaluation components (i.e., partial activities and procedures that contribute to the overall evaluation process) exist, including: daily site visits, independent research conducted by third party researchers, interviews with different stakeholders, questionnaires and surveys received from community members, policy reviews (i.e., where administrators review organizational documents and make appropriate changes), administrator observation of

program delivery, focus groups, case studies, monthly reports, and knowledge sharing reports (i.e., reports documenting conversations between the FFSA and other organizations). Furthermore, administrators discussed additional evaluation components during their interviews, including: performance reviews, weekly meetings, player evaluations, peer feedback, self-evaluation, and management evaluation. The list of various evaluation components found among FFSA documents and elicited from administrators would indicate that program evaluation within the FFSA is both extensive and inclusive.

Administrators expressed divergent opinions however, about how evaluation is actually conducted throughout the FFSA. While some administrators noted that an extensive number of evaluation initiatives are occurring (as those described in FFSA documents) (e.g., daily site visits, monthly reports, weekly meetings, peer feedback, management evaluation), others acknowledged that a much less intensive evaluation process is generally occurring. Specifically, two administrators reflected that the coaches' self-assessment of their individual goals represents the sole evaluation component that is occurring. More relevant to this study—given the intention to explore both successes and shortcomings—are the evaluation components that administrators perceived as no longer happening. For example, two administrators identified that no coaches complete and submit monthly program assessment reports as they once did. Additionally, one other administrator noted that other administrators no longer complete and submit individual progress and assessment reports for staff.

From administrators' perceptions of current FFSA evaluation procedures, an underlying organizational issue of value incongruence may be occurring. Values are described as a broad tendency to prefer certain contexts over others (Hofstede, 1980),

which can affect perceptions and behaviour and can have implications for interpersonal interactions (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998). Further, McShane and Steen (2009) argue that values influence one's preferences for desirable outcomes. In the current study, value incongruence may be understood as the misalignment of beliefs between the FFSA's espoused values and various organizational members' values. In their study of the Commonwealth Games Association's SDP initiative, MacIntosh and Spence (2012) discuss the existing incongruence between espoused organizational values (i.e., those that are stated (either verbally or in writing) by the organization and that guide policies and decisions) and individual managers' values. These researchers indicate that while espoused organizational values determine the degree to which stakeholders direct their attention and their actions, it is individual managers' values that are more representative of expected program outcomes given it is these individuals who deliver the program. As such, it is the actions of individual managers that impact program outcomes to a greater extent than organizational guidelines (as developed from espoused values).

Specifically, it may appear that value incongruence may exist between FFSA espoused values (i.e., those articulated in organizational documentation) and some administrators and individual FFSA administrators themselves. Applying MacIntosh and Spence's (2012) findings to the current study, it might appear that FFSA administrators are guided by organizational values (i.e., coaches buying into the FFSA's documented vision of providing opportunity for youth, as reflected in interviews), but otherwise influence program outcomes individually (e.g., not reflecting wider goals of expansion, focusing on education of each individual). By recognizing how espoused organizational values influence individual behaviour, it becomes critical for the FFSA to address the value incongruence regarding evaluation that seems to currently exist. By understanding

how FFSA espoused values are impacting the FFSA's intended outcomes (as carried out by individual managers), the FFSA could explore how to better align organizational and individual values. One recommendation could be for the FFSA to hold open forums amongst all administrators as a component of their evaluation, thus allowing various administrator to clarify any evident value incongruences to maintain consistent program outcomes.

The FFSA may be limiting the effectiveness of its program evaluation through a level of value incongruence that has not transferred to the administrative group. Further, as administrators identified evaluation procedures that are no longer occurring, a lack of consistency in the espoused organizational values seem to exist. These findings are important as FFSA administrators appear not to support all FFSA espoused values, specifically in the realm of program evaluation. Understanding individual managers' values may contribute to eliminating value incongruence between the FFSA and the administrators and may in turn contribute to FFSA program evaluation initiatives being more effectively delivered.

As participant inclusion has been identified as a valuable component for SDP organizations to utilize in program evaluation (Guest, 2009), program participants' perceptions on evaluation procedures were also considered a crucial data source in the current study. Including such perceptions is believed to achieve a more thorough and accurate representation of program effectiveness (Guest, 2009). From a review of FFSA documents, there was no indication that FFSA evaluation procedures include participants' feedback. While administrators recognize that participant inclusive evaluation presents challenges (i.e., participants do not consistently come to programs,

existing time constraints), the FFSA program delivery would benefit from incorporating participants' opinions in its program evaluation procedures.

About general evaluation procedures themselves, ten of 12 program participants indicated they had not been asked to complete any program evaluations during the time they participated with the FFSA. One participant identified that he had been asked questions several years ago regarding program offerings and time preferences, but no administrators had asked questions regarding either program or coach assessment since that time.

From an analysis of the data, it is clear that major inconsistencies exist between what the FFSA espouses regarding evaluation within organizational documents, what was witnessed through direct participant observation, and what program participants revealed in their interviews about the lack of evaluation initiatives occurring. Though these evaluation processes may have occurred at one point in FFSA history, they are not currently occurring. Specifically, coach- and administrator-as-peer evaluations are not being completed. As the current study represents an independent examination of the FFSA and its program evaluation procedures, it is relevant to explore why program evaluation methods are not consistently being utilized. One consideration for this discrepancy may be how funding requests and evaluation requirements are seen to be linked within the FFSA. For example, the FFSA may extensively describe their evaluation procedures to justify sustainability and accountability components within funding requests, as seen throughout organizational documents.

Hayhurst and Frisby (2010) have expressed concern that since not-for-profit organizations are dependent on funding sources, administrators tailor program evaluation reports to the standards of the funding organization rather than accurately portraying what

is occurring within their organization. In this study, FFSA administrators identified that fundraising (i.e., through writing applications for grant funding) represents a significant component of their role. Moreover, FFSA administrators outline in organizational documents that evaluation processes are being conducted according to specific criteria, many of which were not expressed by administrators within their interviews or found in direct participant observations. This discrepancy is significant; though the FFSA policy dictates certain processes are occurring—and though the FFSA is receiving funding grants as a result of these reports—there are data to suggest these processes are not occurring. Future exploration measuring the incidence of program evaluation practices and the accountability of such practices within the FFSA would be beneficial for this organization. Specifically, one recommendation would be to incorporate program evaluation procedures found in other SDP organizations and explore what similar programs are doing (i.e., evaluation procedures of Right to Play, Kick It, etc).

One other concept that could be further explored relates to the level of comfort or trust necessary to critically evaluate organizational superiors and peers. Antonioni (1994) identifies that a power relationship exists between subordinates and managers, which makes subordinates reluctant to give negative feedback as part of their evaluation. Though one administrator described the culture within the FFSA as being accepting of criticism and as an organization in which administrators are committed to improvement through accepting negative feedback, other administrators did not similarly reflect this culture in their descriptions. In fact, one administrator expressed current fears that being critical of other administrators or of coaches would lead to negative backlash.

When asked about other administrators' performance, one other administrator displayed anxiety and indicated there is currently no level of comfort that exists in the



FFSA to evaluate others' performance. When such comfort or trust between organizational members is lacking, critical feedback may be altered or not delivered at all when the evaluator is known (Bernardin, 1986; Tetlock, 1983). As such, the FFSA should be cognizant that program evaluation procedures may either be ineffective or outright inaccurate, due to the lack of comfort that exists amongst evaluating administrators, most notably the coaches, to actually engage in evaluation measures. It was found to this point that administrators have not implemented a system by which confidential evaluation may be submitted, which in turn has been a large contributing factor in creating a lack of comfort among administrators. As such, exploring methods to better ensure anonymous evaluation may ultimately better serve the FFSA in their efforts to gain feedback on programs, administrators, and the organization itself. Moreover, using an intermediary group of individuals such as volunteers to conduct evaluation may help to increase administrators' comfort.

The concept of a "safe space" structure is also relevant to address the current lack of comfort that exists within the FFSA. Ermine (2007) defines safe space as a framework to encourage the reconciliation of different viewpoints and as a venue to "step out of allegiances ... and assume a position where human-to-human dialogue can occur" (p. 194). Furthermore, Lamb, Lane, and Aldous (2012) have indicated that developing an inclusive, accepting environment is conducive to receiving feedback that allows for growth and effective program development. By establishing an organizational safe space structure, the FFSA may develop a more inclusive and accessible feedback mechanism that could benefit evaluation practices.

Future research could explore how the relationship between administrators and coaches impact feedback, and how concerns regarding job security and individual

perceptions (i.e., negative or critical feedback resulting in being treated differently) may be mitigated. A safe space, where no allegiances or judgment exists, may be more conducive for receiving accurate evaluation of both FFSA peers, superiors, and programs. One recommendation for the FFSA could be to establish a safe space through the use of an intermediary group of individuals such as volunteers. By allowing the volunteers to gather feedback from coaches and administrators, transfer the feedback to typed materials to ensure anonymity, and deliver the feedback to the necessary receiver, a sense of comfort and safe space may be created.

### **Effectiveness of SDP Programming in Gansbaai: Answering the Research Questions**

This study was guided by three research questions. The first research question posed was: *“how are the needs of the local communities being addressed in the delivery of the social integration initiative in Gansbaai, South Africa?”* Guest (2009) believes that effective program delivery must account for the needs of the individuals who reside within the local community. To that end, FFSA documents reference several current issues of importance as occurring in the local communities, including: racial segregation, unemployment, poverty, crime, HIV/AIDS, lack of proper nutrition, and teenage pregnancy. Furthermore, administrators and program participants expressed these same local issues within interviews, particularly emphasizing racial segregation, a lack of opportunity, and poverty as relevant and current issues. Though these issues are not unique to Gansbaai, the FFSA recognizes they represent those they encounter regularly within the local community and shape what they are trying to achieve through their programs.

For example, through recognizing these issues, the FFSA tailors their programs to improve the impacts for program participants residing in the local community. For

example, the FFSA provides opportunities for program participants to explore different potential career options. During the time of this study, FFSA administrators provided youth with travel opportunities, where they visited Cape Town, Stellenbosch University, and a wildlife reserve. From such travel, FFSA program participants become more knowledgeable about future potential career path and can in turn communicate a broader understanding of potential future options for themselves, as was reflected in informal conversations with program participants following the trips. Future research could explore the long term impact of both the travelling component of the FFSA programming as well as the coaches' mentorship component of FFSA programming. This research could be conducted by investigating the lives of previous FFSA program participants and how they were affected by participation and such field experiences.

In respect to addressing the local issue of poverty, it was directly observed that the FFSA freely distributes new jerseys, shoes, and other donated items to help alleviate clothing costs for impoverished participants, thereby potentially limiting the impact of poverty. Shoe and clothing donations come from various FFSA partners and individual donors.

According to FFSA documents, there are efforts to bring the different communities together; however, through direct participant observation, it appeared as though administrators were complacent in recruiting program participants, as mentioned. For example, the same youth were observed to participate each day, and no new participants arrived throughout the length of the study. Moreover, administrators appeared to make no effort to encourage new participants. Coaches and program participants recruit others through personal invitation and new participants are typically also recruited through word of mouth communication in communities and schools.

Moreover, no programs currently exist that facilitate increased social interaction, though the success of these programs may be limited by a lack of white participants, as mentioned. Administrators and program participants alike describe the FFSA's past success in integrating the three communities, though they acknowledge a decline in interest and participation rates since the end of the World Cup, held in South Africa in 2010. Overall, the FFSA has been successful in both identifying and addressing a variety of needs within the Gansbaai, South Africa region through their programming and community involvement and through the facilitation of after-school programs. Further efforts could include an additional focus on the specific social integration needs that exist in this community.

Further considering the FFSA's impact on the local community, recognizing the FFSA administrators' respective backgrounds would be relevant to how well the FFSA understands the needs of the local communities. While coaches are hired from the three communities, higher levels administrators within the FFSA are hired from outside the community of Gansbaai. Noting that these administrators are from a more privileged background than many of the other FFSA stakeholders (i.e., educated in Cape Town, live away from Gansbaai), further research could examine how these different perspectives ultimately affect the intended program outcomes of the FFSA.

The second research question posed was: *"in providing sport for development programming, what social or cultural impact does this particular SDP program make on its participants?"* Spaaj (2012) defines social and cultural impact as the ability to create and cultivate social connections and engage in interactions with others. Sanford et al. (2006) define social and cultural impact as a change in perception within a particular setting. As such, many FFSA program participants commented on how their perceptions

of others from different racial groups were altered after participating in programs for an extended period of time. Specifically, one participant used the term “one culture” to describe how youth from all communities are treated at the FFSA field and how the perspectives have changed since participating in FFSA programs. Further, administrators reflected that cultural impact is fostered through the coach-player interaction. By supporting the “one culture” concept, administrators are responsible for youth feeling accepted and being treated equally at the FFSA, contrary to what youth still experience in the local communities. Specifically, outside the FFSA and specifically within each of the participating communities distinct by race, this “one culture” was observed not to exist amongst citizens.

By reducing racial tension and by disallowing racial barriers to exist within FFSA training sessions and programs, the researcher directly observed program participants interacting more positively than what was observed in the broader community, where examples of racial tension and segregation were witnessed (e.g., the researcher observed coloured youth to come to a certain point on walking paths between the white and coloured community only to stop so that they would not cross that point). Interestingly, although both administrators and participants described language as an obstacle to integration, administrators reflected widespread use of English by all FFSA stakeholders during FFSA programs has a positive impact on cultural acceptance amongst participants, as a neutral and unifying language. The FFSA programs are delivered in English, which supports the FFSA’s intention to overcome cultural barriers and participants reflected that the FFSA has been successful in overcoming these barriers.

While there appears to be synergy between how administrators and program participants perceived positive social and cultural impact, it is also relevant to mention

how parents perceived the social and cultural impact of the FFSA. Drawing from survey results found in FFSA documents and from program participants' interview data, there is strong support for FFSA programs also having a strong social and cultural impact on participants' parents. Within FFSA surveys, 80% of program participants' parents feel their children make friends from other communities. Additionally, program participants generally believe their parents positively support them in their participation within FFSA programs with children from other communities, though a smaller number of participants expressed their parents resist the FFSA, from a feeling that there are no actual participation benefits for their child. Further, program participants—specifically black and coloured program participants—indicated they are more willing to travel to the homes of other FFSA youth from other communities. It appears the FFSA has succeeded in creating a social and cultural impact within the community.

The third research question posed was: *“how do the assumptions, beliefs, and biases, held by the administrator(s) of the Gansbaai program, affect its delivery and the potential outcomes for its participants?”* Darnell (2007) argued that SDP administrators' worldviews (i.e., the ways in which individuals perceive the world around them, developed through their own experiences and contexts) affect program outcomes and can influence program delivery. Specifically, Darnell (2007) argued that SDP administrators' colonialist beliefs (i.e., donating time and resources in a “rescue” effort so they may come in and fix the problem) may create the potential for bias, such that administrators may believe they can be more efficient or effective based on their own experiences, which in turn may adversely affect program delivery. In the FFSA, such colonialist beliefs may exist in the context of certain sponsors investing in the organization or administrators from different cultural backgrounds developing programs to influence

other racial groups. In the current study, no findings from administrator interviews and no direct observations supported the position that FFSA administrators held colonialist beliefs pertaining to programming or program delivery processes.

One consideration for bias existed however, related to the educational background of some FFSA administrators positioned within higher organizational levels than other administrators. Recognizing that some FFSA administrators were educated in a Westernized school, the possibility exists for these administrators to be enacting colonialist perspectives throughout the organization. While the researcher did not experience the enactment of such perspectives during the 3-week timeframe of the study, future research may be helpful to explore how the educational backgrounds of higher level FFSA administrators impact the development and delivery of FFSA programs.

Another group in which bias for colonialist beliefs may arise and manifest may be FFSA volunteers. The FFSA has enabled local community members to influence program delivery with the assistance of volunteers, usually of European or North American backgrounds. Volunteer responsibilities currently include assisting with training sessions and administrative tasks (e.g., online content management and developing reports). While it may be possible for international volunteers to manifest colonialist beliefs, integrating these volunteers with local coaches in training sessions may mitigate such beliefs.

Specifically, Tiessen (2011) examined how Western perspectives of global citizenship (i.e., people are equal members of the globe, rather than of individual cultures) are introduced in SDP programming. She described a practice of “othering”, where one group comes in to fix the other. Tiessen (2011) argued that this hinders the ability to develop global citizenship, and highlighted that best practice includes an integration of local expertise with outside influence. By incorporating FFSA volunteers

into program delivery equally with FFSA coaches, rather than as consultants or advisors to the local coaches, the FFSA may be making a conscious effort to ensure that a balanced program is delivered. Future research could explore how an integration of volunteers with coaches impacts FFSA program delivery and outcomes for program participants.

While examples of administrator bias in the form of colonialist beliefs were not found to exist, examples of administrator bias in relation to race and discrimination were found to exist. For example, one FFSA administrator highlighted that at one time, all coaches were black and communicated to participants in Xhosa language, which ultimately did not allow for white or coloured participants to feel welcome and, as a result, many such participants stopped coming to training sessions. It was directly observed (and reflected in some participant interviews) that many participants originally came to the program based on their personal relationship with the coach, rather than based on an affiliation to the program or the FFSA as an organization (i.e., player and coach arrive together, overhearing conversation about family friends, established rapport and history between coach and player). . As such, with the FFSA employing primarily black coaches for the most popular programming, there was less of a connection with the white community.

Another way in which administrators' worldviews were found to affect potentially bias in FFSA programming related to coaching demographics and background. Specifically, all FFSA soccer coaches are black and live in the community of Masakhane. One field hockey coach is white and lives in Gansbaai. From direct participant observation, it appeared as though administrators established a high level of comfort in working with participants from their own community. For example, coaches and program



participants from the same community were directly observed to arrive at the field together and a sense of camaraderie and closeness seemed to exist between particular coaches and program participants, specifically those from the community of Musakhane. The researcher did not observe this level of camaraderie between coaches and participants from other communities.

It was also directly observed that both administrators and program participants tended to speak Xhosa when rushed or under pressure (e.g., during training matches). Though FFSA administrators intend to deliver programs equally to participants of all three communities, their efforts may be negatively affected when the use of one language is preferred for use over another. A more concentrated effort to be consistent with the use of English for the benefit of all stakeholders may better facilitate the intended programming. Additionally, it was directly observed that a disconnection may be occurring between higher level administrators and coaches in terms of their perceived ability to relate to all program participants. While administrators were optimistic about program participants coming to engage in the program from all three communities, the researcher directly observed coaches to appear more comfortable working with a culturally uniform group of participants (e.g., coaches from the black community working with youth from the black community).

In answering the third research question, it is clear that a level of administrator bias exists related specifically to race relations. As a result, FFSA program outcomes may be affected, specifically with how administrators interact with program participants. Though the FFSA does well to mitigate potential colonialist impacts (e.g., specific level of involvement of international volunteers), there appears to be bias held among internal constituents that could still be addressed. For example, administrators could consciously

make efforts to provide a more inclusive environment for program participants representing all racial groups, through developing the comfort levels of coaches and through building on the optimism shown for complete integration of all three communities. In the following chapter, conclusions, recommendations, limitations, delimitations and future research will be discussed.

## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **CONCLUSIONS**

The purpose of this study was to determine the effectiveness of sport for delivery programming evaluation within one established program in Gansbaai, South Africa through critical and independent participant-driven evaluation. Completing this case study has contributed to the academic body of knowledge on SDP program evaluation, and the findings benefit SDP organizations wishing to improve their program evaluation procedures. In this chapter, a summary of the research is provided as are the study's limitations and delimitations. Finally, recommendations and ideas for future research are presented.

#### **Summary of Research**

The case study research method was employed to conduct this research on evaluation in SDP programming within the Football Foundation of South Africa (FFSA) in Gansbaai, South Africa. In total, 17 interviews were conducted and recorded over a 3-week timeframe in August and September, 2012 with both FFSA administrators and program participants. Additional data sources of direct participant observations and organizational documents were collected and analyzed in this case study. A critical perspective was employed as a lens to explore potential areas of power inequity and colonialist worldviews being enacted, which may influence FFSA administrators and program participants related to program outcomes. Upon completion of the data collection phase, the ATLAS.ti computer program was used to organize and code the data sources and emergent themes were categorized, analyzed, presented, and discussed according to Kvale and Brinkman's (2008) methods.

***Major Findings.***

Emergent themes from interview data were triangulated with the additional data sources to highlight the major findings in this study, which revealed both the successes and the shortcomings the FFSA has experienced both currently and in the past. As interviews were conducted with two distinct participant groups (i.e., FFSA administrators and program participants), major findings were outlined according to these two groups. A first major finding related to demographics, as a distinct lack of both female and white participants (i.e., both white males and females) exist currently within FFSA programs. While FFSA administrators were found to be making efforts to address the lack of such participants, FFSA administrators were also found to not be fully addressing issues of the lack of gender equity and racial integration as currently occurring in the FFSA.

Through an analysis of administrator interview data, several major themes emerged. One theme relates to FFSA administrators' perception of organizational goals, and the degree of importance related to each goal. *Primary* goals of the FFSA, espoused by most if not all administrators and reflected in organizational documents, included education, increased opportunity for youth, and social integration. FFSA administrators did not express *secondary* (i.e., life skill development, reduction of crime) and *tertiary* goals (i.e., development of coaches, expansion of the FFSA) as consistently. Moreover, these goals were still discussed, though *secondary* and *tertiary* goals were not as consistently articulated by FFSA administrators or found within organizational documents.

Further major findings from administrator interview data were associated with the social and cultural impact that the FFSA has on program participants. Administrators frequently identified that building a strong coach-player relationship was important for

participants' on- and off-field development. Further, administrators recognized that the coach played a significant role in facilitating social integration between participants from each community. Most administrators reflected that the coach has a positive influence on program participants, though they also revealed certain negative impacts of coaches on participants in past experiences (e.g., driving participants away because of language preference). Finally, administrators identified that building trust between the coaches and participants was important so a social and cultural impact on participants could be possible.

A final theme from administrator interview data related to FFSA program evaluation procedures. Inconsistencies of program evaluation procedures were found to exist between what administrators espoused and the descriptors found within organizational documents. Disparities were uncovered between some administrators' descriptions of extensive program evaluation procedures and other administrators' acknowledgement that no program evaluation procedures are currently happening. Moreover, the researcher directly observed no program evaluation procedures as occurring throughout the 3-week timeframe of the study. Additionally, administrators acknowledged that a lack of comfort exists when they themselves critically evaluate each other.

In addition, major themes were revealed from program participants' interview data. Overwhelmingly, program participants reflected that the coach plays an important role in their life skill development. Specifically, the coach is influential in supporting various outcomes, such as their own education, encouraging them to stay away from drugs, and interacting with different racial groups as components of life skill development. A second emergent theme from program participants related to the

importance of competition for youth. The majority of program participants referred to competition as an important outcome from their FFSA participation and reflected that there was a need for more competitive matches to be played. These program participants held a common belief that the FFSA could provide the opportunity for advancing their professional soccer careers; thus, there was a desire to include and increase the number of competitive matches and scouting opportunities as components of the FFSA programming.

A third theme from program participant interview data related to their perception of the state of FFSA program evaluation. Program participants consistently expressed that program evaluation was not being conducted, or if it was being conducted, it was not inclusive of their perspectives. It was found that no formal program evaluation process currently exists within the FFSA, which includes participants' perspectives, though organizational documents refer to such inclusion of participants' perspectives. A fourth emergent theme relates to the FFSA's impact on program participants' home life. Program participants reflected that parents and caregivers generally hold favourable views about youth participating in FFSA programs, specifically viewing the FFSA as a positive alternative to youth spending time in the streets and out of trouble. Parents felt that the FFSA helped youth develop respect for community members and a high level of work ethic in completing schoolwork and household chores.

A final emergent theme from program participant interview data pertains to social integration. Overall, respondents expressed a positive sentiment regarding social integration and highlighted that the FFSA has influenced how they view participants from different communities and racial backgrounds. Program participants discussed the concept of "one culture" when referring to how the FFSA operates programs and

encourages social integration. A program participant expressed a divergent view here however, and highlighted that the FFSA programs took too much of their leisure time and did not allow for participants to spend free time with friends in other communities outside the FFSA. Having summarized the results and major discussion points from this study, the following section will outline the study's limitations and delimitations. Rationale for the study's context and choices made throughout the research process are outlined.

### **Limitations**

This study was limited by the reliance on a Confederate to enact critical components throughout the research process. The confederate was an FFSA administrator and may have held biases toward FFSA programs and evaluation that may have affected the researcher's access. The Confederate arranged access to the facility, FFSA program participants, and accommodation for the researcher for the duration of the study, which may have limited the extent to which the researcher could view potential concerns, issues, or areas within the FFSA perceived as negative. Incorporating other administrators' perspectives through interviews and direct participant observations mitigated this limitation. Further, the Confederate did not restrict the researcher's access to any component of the FFSA programs or organizational documents.

Another immediate limitation of the case study that arose was the potential for an existing language barrier between the researcher and the South African interview participants. While the researcher spoke and wrote only fluent English, the regional languages include English, Afrikaans, and Xhosa. As such, the researcher needed to be cognizant of the fact that interview respondents may not speak English. Ensuring that English speaking officials who also spoke Afrikaans and Xhosa were available in Gansbaai to translate for the researcher during interview interactions mitigated this

limitation. The researcher also conducted interviews while being accompanied by one area translator, who communicated the English questions into the specific language for the respondent when necessary. In turn, the area translator translated the responses back into English for the researcher. In the end, this limitation existed only occasionally within interactions with parents and within one interaction with a school administrator.

In the few instances when the researcher did not understand the interview participants' language, a related secondary limitation occurred when it was time for the researcher to convert the digital recording of the native Afrikaans or Xhosa languages into English, later when transcribing the interview. This was addressed by first recording both the Afrikaans and the English translation, and then having the Afrikaans native tongue portion translated a second time using online sources, once the researcher returned to Canada. This second translation ensured accuracy when accounting for any errors that may have occurred in the first translation while on-site in South Africa. This translation was done as part of data analysis processes to ensure response accuracy. In the end, the scope of this limitation was minimal as there were only three phrases that needed a second translation in Canada.

A third limitation existed when the interview participants demonstrated an initial lack of openness towards the researcher as he studied them while situated within the unfamiliar context of a different country. As the researcher had never traveled overseas for research purposes, he lacked initial comfort within the research setting, which may have affected how participants viewed him. This limitation was minimized by the researcher's progressively increased involvement in activities and presence with others through conversations as days passed. Over the course of three weeks, the researcher developed higher levels of rapport and trust with participants, which assisted in



conducting more effective interviews leading into the final week at the FFSA. In this way, the researcher elicited better responses from participants by integrating within the community slowly than had he requested interviews with participants immediately upon arriving in Gansbaai, South Africa.

Further, this study was limited by its timeframe. As such, the researcher had a limited opportunity to conduct interviews and engage in direct participant observation over a 3-week period. While the researcher completed the intended number of interviews, aligned with the scope of the research study, a longer timeframe would have provided the research with the potential to conduct a greater number of interviews and observe daily FFSA operations more extensively. This limitation is relevant to data triangulation, as inconsistencies in the findings may have resulted from having a lack of time to witness particular processes that are being conducted versus those not conducted at all.

Fourth, the process of receiving study participants' informed consent could have been viewed as a potential limitation in this study. From an understanding that study participants may have viewed the researcher as a person in a position of power due to a perceived higher social status of being Western and being Canadian, the researcher may have had difficulty ensuring that study participants did not feel coerced into participating in the study (Darnell, 2007). The researcher managed this potential limitation by identifying as an independent evaluator acting separately from the FFSA to thus create a separation between the researcher and the organization under study. The researcher specifically articulated a disassociation with the FFSA to mitigate any perceived repercussions that study participants may have felt by speaking negatively about the FFSA.

Aguinis and Henle (2008) indicate that respondents react positively (i.e., they are less likely to be coerced) to volunteers rather than to paid staff. By identifying as an independent and volunteer evaluator, the researcher made it clear to study participants that he was neither a member of the FFSA, nor would there be repercussions to them should they choose not to participate. Letters of informed consent were made available to study participants in both English and Afrikaans languages, and they were distributed for review prior to the beginning of the interview with all study participants. The researcher was immediately present to answer any of the study participants' questions and to receive signed letters of informed consent.

A final limitation of the current study related to its small sample size. In this study, three administrators, two coaches, and 12 program participants—all representative of one SDP organization—were interviewed. Moreover, the program participant group was very homogenous (i.e., all were black, over 18 years of age, from Masakhane, and had been in the program for at least a year), which limited the potential for more diverse insights representative of a more heterogeneous group (i.e., black, white, coloured participants from each of the three communities who have participated in FFSA programs for varying lengths of time). Such diversity may have allowed for a better understanding of the challenges faced by participants of different communities, as well as have provided a more complete understanding of how the FFSA is succeeding (or is not succeeding) in fostering social integration.

### **Delimitations**

This study was delimited to both the organizational context for evaluation of a SDP program and to the timeframe of the study. First, the study was delimited to the FFSA, which is located in Gansbaai, South Africa, in order to develop a deep

understanding of the evaluation procedures within one organizational context. As such, exploring various components of program operations and evaluating the program was made possible within this one SDP organization. While the researcher had communicated with many SDP organizations in both Africa and South America, the FFSA was most responsive to the research needs and had indicated a willingness to participate in this research.

Second, the study was delimited to a timeframe of three weeks for two reasons. Primarily, as the researcher was responsible for all expenses related to conducting this research (e.g., travel costs from Canada to South Africa and back), travelling for a longer period was unfeasible. Second and more significantly, the study was delimited to a 3-week period given the constraints of the (Master's) degree program. Specifically, the researcher's allotment of time for the research study was influenced by the expected completion of the degree program and thus dictated a shorter data collection timeframe of three weeks.

A third delimitation was the researcher's conscious decision to overlook exploring the program evaluation literature at the outset of the study. While it is recognized that this study examined SDP programs and evaluation, the frameworks provided by Coalter (2009), Guest (2009), and Levermore (2008b) instead served as a theoretical guide for reviewing SDP programming. That said, future research could incorporate evaluation literature located outside the SDP literature to obtain alternative insights as to how program evaluation may exist and may be shaped in the SDP context.

## **Recommendations and Future Research**

### ***Managerial Implications of Major Findings to the FFSA.***

The results of this case study have a variety of managerial implications for the FFSA. Primarily, these research findings indicate that evaluation processes within the FFSA are inconsistently occurring and are not inclusive of the program participants' perspective. Further, there appear to be issues with how FFSA administrators provide critical feedback to FFSA officials. Moving forward, it is recommended that the FFSA utilize international volunteers to a deeper degree in evaluation processes, possibly as third party mediators (i.e., volunteers receive coaches' feedback and summarize a report to be given to FFSA officials). In this way, coaches' feedback may be represented anonymously within the report.

An empirical examination of the involvement of a neutral, third party group like international volunteers may be conducted to measure the impact of such of a group on the fostering of critical and constructive feedback of FFSA administrators and coaches. Also, as administrators reflected that one obstacle was the lack of time to carry out such evaluation, future research may be conducted on how utilizing international volunteers for participant inclusive evaluation may alleviate such resource and time commitments. Involving international volunteers a research study may also allow for a greater number of program participants to be involved in feedback and evaluation processes, as more time resources may be available to invest in conducting such research.

A second managerial implication found in this study relates to the finding that very few white participants are involved in FFSA programs, which disallows the FFSA to achieve its stated organizational goal of social integration. Further, a lack of white participants in FFSA programs serves to limit the wider social impact of the FFSA and

SDP programming on people living within the Gansbaai region, such that integration is not occurring amongst all potential participants. In a future study, researchers could explore how the FFSA expands their programs, such that they incorporate school programs in white communities to facilitate social integration between those already attending FFSA programs and new participants. Furthermore, researchers could explore different FFSA program options (i.e., programs highlighting different sports and activities) than currently offered, the results of which may serve to cater to a broader program participant base representative of all three communities.

A third managerial implication found in this study relates to the accountability FFSA administrators demonstrate by being involved and completing this study. In this manner, the FFSA gains credibility amongst the SDP community, potential donors, and funding partners. By allowing a researcher to enter the FFSA and conduct this case study, the FFSA shows a commitment to transparency and accountability toward programming as well as program improvement. By having a researcher conduct independent research and sending reports to the organization, the FFSA can gain unbiased feedback and criticism through which they can improve their programs.

***Theoretical Implications of Major Findings to the FFSA.***

Further to the managerial implications to the FFSA, this study provides several theoretical implications to the SDP literature. Identifying that a research gap exists in SDP literature regarding a lack of program evaluation (Levermore, 2008a; Spaaj, 2009), as well as a lack of empirical work pertaining to evaluation (Levermore & Beacom, 2009; Coalter, 2010), this study has attempted to address these concerns through the research findings. One theoretical contribution made by this study pertains to Guest's (2009) assertion that effective SDP program evaluation should include the participant

perspective. By gathering empirical data from the FFSA participants and by analyzing these data in concert with other data sources, a better understanding of participants' perspective and their view on how program evaluation can be achieved was received. Potential research moving forward could involve a more extensive exploration of program participants' perspectives, particularly from both female and young program participants.

A second theoretical implication from this study addresses Swart, Bob, Knott, and Salie's (2010) call for research, specifically for further examination of the 2010 World Cup legacy effects on the FFSA, as their previous research examined the immediate effects from the World Cup on small South African communities and specifically Gansbaai. As the FFSA was founded as a direct result of the World Cup being hosted by South Africa in 2010 (marketing of the World Cup directly led to the funding for the FFSA facilities), an examination of the organization several years later relates to both the impact of the major event over a longer term, as well as to organizational sustainability. By understanding the context of evaluation in the FFSA during the hosting of the World Cup (i.e., peak period of interest in FFSA programs) and then exploring where the FFSA currently succeeds or fails, a better picture of how organizational sustainability can relate to large scale events such as the World Cup may be explored.

A further call to research could be to use leadership theory to explore how the results from the current study may be viewed within the leadership field, particularly within SDP programming. While the focus of the current study was to primarily examine evaluation procedures within a sport for development organization, a worthwhile endeavour would be to examine how FFSA administrators operate various programs through use of leadership theories. Such a study may elicit a better understanding of

administrators' leadership effectiveness and how such effectiveness affects the FFSA as an organization—and more specifically its evaluation practices and procedures—and thus may be beneficial to the overall efficiency and sustainability of the FFSA.

### **Personal Reflections**

In this section, the researcher's personal reflection relates to various components of the study that changed, evolved, or developed throughout the research process. Through use of 1<sup>st</sup>-person narrative, the researcher discusses the study in relation to the growth he experienced and how his growth in turn impacted the study.

This study has been one of the most influential experiences of my life. The opportunity to travel to another country and engage in research was a privilege, and I would like to reflect on my role as a researcher within this process. I will briefly discuss my relationship with the Confederate and how it impacted my time in South Africa, my biases from a Western background, how my perceptions changed throughout the experience, and how my approach to the research shifted from a critical paradigm to an interpretive one.

This research study would not have been possible, nor as successful, if I had not built as positive a relationship with the Confederate as I did. From our first interactions, the Confederate expressed a willingness and openness to have me engage in critical research with the FFSA. In moving through the process of arranging the flights, accommodations, and interviews, I developed a rapport with the Confederate that ensured much of my trip progressed smoothly. I do acknowledge that this relationship impacted the study, though I perceived the Confederate was looking for independent feedback to improve the FFSA, rather than a report of all the successes the FFSA has achieved.

I am a Caucasian male possessing a Western background and commensurate perspectives. By many definitions, I enjoy several privileges that other individuals may not enjoy, specifically because of the context within which I was raised (e.g., access to education, travel, and employment opportunities). Travelling from my usual context and into a completely different culture was an incredible educational experience for me. Simply being white skinned set me apart from many people with whom I was working and interacting. There were challenges, stemming from both my own biases and my perceptions of others around me during my time in South Africa. While the FFSA employs white volunteers year round, there were still experiences where I was treated differently from others within the communities based on my skin colour (i.e., preferential treatment at a local pub over black residents, hesitation from community members to engage informally in conversation). As well, I had certain preconceptions of the South African culture and people (i.e., what poverty looked like, and the perspectives of white individuals I assumed they would hold) , and the FFSA programs that impacted how I designed and initiated the research. From a Western perspective, there are certain qualities that I value (e.g., free education, shelter, access to food and water, and access to electricity) which shape my perceptions of poverty. During my time in South Africa, these perceptions were challenged and I found myself developing a new and different understanding of what poverty means, which impacted how I analyzed data differently than I originally thought would occur. I found that the ways in which I had originally intended to define poverty and racism, and thus analyze how the FFSA was addressing these issues, were altered throughout the process, and therefore changed how they were ultimately analyzed.



An important reflection related to how my personal perceptions changed and how such changes connected to the paradigm I used for this study. While I began this study with a critical paradigm thinking I would be uncovering power relationships and inequalities in evaluation and program delivery, I found that as I progressed through the data collection phase in South Africa and later, the data analysis phase in Canada, I shifted to adopt a more interpretive paradigm. In reflection, I realize that gaining the insights about the culture and the FFSA from being in South Africa gave me a much better understanding of what I should be examining. I found myself exploring what was actually happening within the FFSA, rather than challenging what should be happening. Tied to my own Western perspective and commensurate biases, I asked myself if this context was one I understood well enough to challenge. What I discovered was that I did not believe I knew enough, nor had the requisite expertise, to challenge the current processes as I had intended. As I progressed through the writing of this thesis project, I acknowledge that the writing shifts to adopt an interpretive perspective, as it felt more appropriate for the final outcomes of this case study.

In summary, I felt that my experience was both enlightening and humbling. I learned much more than I thought I could, both about academia and myself. I realized on a personal level that I will design future research projects incorporating a quantitative methodology, as I am more comfortable with the philosophies and dictates of that methodology. Further, I realized I must spend much more time in a research context than what I was able for this study, in order to achieve the research objectives I originally intended. In the end, I believe that this research will help the FFSA and perhaps other SDP organizations, and I believe I have become a better academic from engaging in this research.

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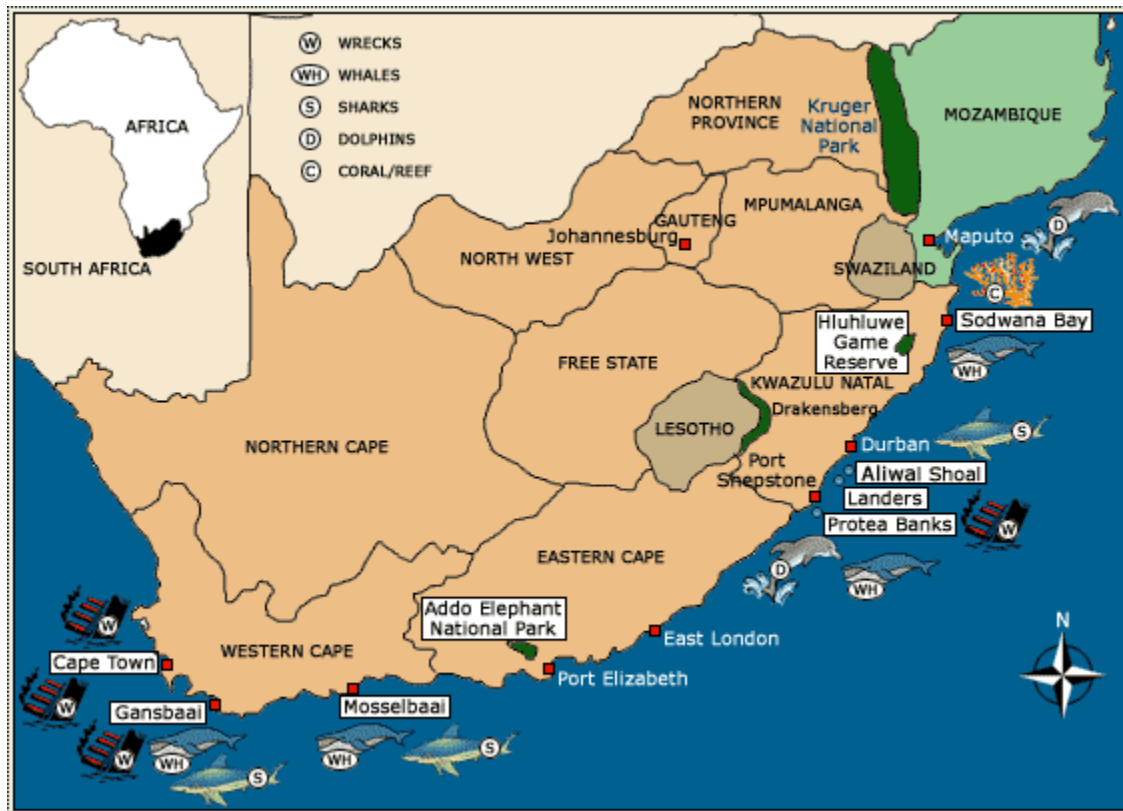
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## **APPENDICES**

# APPENDIX A

## MAP OF SOUTH AFRICA



APPENDIX B  
MAP OF GANSBAAI





## APPENDIX C

### LETTER OF INVITATION

July 4, 2012

**Title of Study:** *Evaluation in Sport for Development: A Case Study of the Gansbaai Project, Football Foundation of South Africa from a Critical Perspective*

**Principal Investigator:** *Chris Arnold, M.A. Candidate, Department of Sport Management, Brock University*

**Co-Investigator:** *Kirsty K. Spence, Associate Professor, Department of Sport Management, Brock University*

I, Chris R. Arnold, MA Candidate from the Department of Sport Management at Brock University, invite you to participate in a research project entitled "Critical Evaluation in Sport for Development: A Case Study of Football Foundation of South Africa." The purpose of this research is to examine the Football Foundation of South Africa's program in Gansbaai. Specifically, Dr. Kirsty Spence (co-investigator) and I invite you to participate in a research study to share your experiences with the organization for us to understand how the efforts of this organization impact the community through the use of sport.

The duration of your participation in this project is from August 1, 2012 to October 1, 2012. As well, you must be 18 years of age or older. While the original intent for data collection is to generate an analysis and findings as to the effectiveness of program delivery in this organization, your choice to participate or to withdraw from the research project can be exercised at any time during the course of the study without repercussion. As a participant in this study, you will be involved in data collection activities, most notably a recorded interview (approximately 45 minutes in length), which will be translated and transcribed and used as a key data source. Research findings will describe the effectiveness of the organization in delivering sport for development programming, and determine what influences these efforts have had on your experiences, development, and organizational outcomes. The study is being conducted through the Department of Sport Management at Brock University in St. Catharines, Ontario. The findings will be available to you through the research team or the Football Foundation organization once the study is complete.

There are several potential direct benefits to you as a participant in this research project. First, you may experience individual benefits; for example, engaging in the interview may give you the opportunity to reflect on your experiences with the organization. Second, your participation supports research that may contribute to improved programming, development of best practices, and an increased understanding of the value of sport for development. Third, your participation contributes to research that may validate programming and provide information that can be used to solicit additional funding for the organization. Fourth, you will be provided with a report of the study findings.

While all efforts will be made to disassociate your name with any of the data presented, details regarding the organization and your gender may be disclosed, thus presenting a slight risk that your identity may be uncovered. That said, your individual responses will remain strictly confidential and be kept in a secure location. As well, Dr. Spence will have access to these data in collaboration as a co-investigator to this study. Lastly, the Football Foundation of South Africa will not be made aware of your decision to participate in this study to further guarantee your anonymity and confidentiality.

If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, please contact the Brock University Research Ethics Officer in the Office of Research Services at 905-688-5550, ext. 3035 or by e-mail at [reb@brocku.ca](mailto:reb@brocku.ca). If you have any questions, please also feel free to contact me by email at [ca07jr@brocku.ca](mailto:ca07jr@brocku.ca) or by telephone at 905-520-5382.

Thank you,

Chris Arnold, MA Candidate

This study has been reviewed and received ethics clearance through Brock University's Research Ethics Board (file 11-273).

## APPENDIX D

### INFORMED CONSENT FORM

July 4, 2012

**Title of Study:** *Evaluation in Sport for Development: A Case Study of the Gansbaai Project, Football Foundation of South Africa from a Critical Perspective*

**Principal Investigator (PI):** *Chris Arnold, M.A. Candidate, Department of Sport Management, Brock University*

**Co-Investigator:** *Kirsty K. Spence, Associate Professor, Department of Sport Management, Brock University*

**Name of Participant (please print):** \_\_\_\_\_

- I understand that this study involves research and that I am being invited to participate.
- I understand that the purpose of this study is to understand and examine the Football Foundation of South Africa sport for development program in Gansbaai, South Africa.
- I understand that the expected duration of my participation in this study is between 30 and 120 minutes.
- I understand that participation is voluntary; my refusal to participate or my withdrawal from the study will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which I am otherwise entitled and I may discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits, to which I am otherwise entitled.
- I understand that I am under no obligation to participate and if I choose to participate, I can withdraw from the study at any time and/or refuse to answer any questions, without suffering any negative consequences. If I withdraw from the study, I will decide at that point if I want the researchers to use my data or if I want them to destroy it and not use it.
- I understand that my participation will consist of taking part in a semi-structured interview regarding my experiences and perceptions related to the Football Foundation of South Africa. I understand that I will specifically be asked questions about how the Gansbaai program, my experiences, and how my involvement influences other aspects of my life and my community.
- I understand that my participation in this study will not entail any foreseeable risks.
- I understand that the Principle Investigator (PI) will securely store my data within a locked office for up to one year and that he and his co-investigator will access my data.
- I understand that the PI will keep all data collected in confidence. Furthermore, he will make all attempts to ensure confidentiality and anonymity and involvement in the research project by using a pseudonym when presenting research findings in further academic work (i.e., presentations and manuscript writing).
- I understand that some information may be identified in this work related to the institution studied and the time/year of the study. This type of information however will have no bearing on my own individual participation.
- I also understand that the research findings will be used only for academic purposes (i.e., presentations, publications, and technical reports) and will be made available upon the study's completion through the Football Foundation of South Africa.
- I understand that my participation in this study will allow me to reflect on my experience with the Football Foundation of South Africa. My participation will also benefit the researchers to develop a clear assessment of the program, the participant experience and its outcomes, as well as the experiences of the organization staff.
- I understand that the results of this study may be disseminated within sport management journal publications such as the Journal of Sport Management and at academic conferences such as the North American Society for Sport Management.
- I understand that the interviews will be audio taped with the use of a digital recorder and will be translated and transcribed for analysis.
- I understand that if I have any ethical concerns about the study or pertinent questions about my rights as a research participant, I can contact the Brock University Research Ethics Officer (905 688-5550 ext. 3035, [reb@brocku.ca](mailto:reb@brocku.ca)).
- I understand that I should keep a copy of the letters of information and consent for my personal records.

- I \_\_\_\_\_
1. *have read and understood the relevant information regarding this research project;*
  2. *understand that I may ask questions of the researcher in the future; and,*
  3. *indicate free consent to research participation by signing this research consent form.*

**Participant's Signature:** \_\_\_\_\_

**I have explained this study to the participant. Researcher's Signature:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Chris Arnold, MA Candidate**  
905-520-5382; [ca07jr@brocku.ca](mailto:ca07jr@brocku.ca)

This study has been reviewed and received ethics clearance through Brock University's Research Ethics Board (file 11-273).

## APPENDIX E

### INTERVIEW GUIDE - ADMINISTRATORS

July 4, 2012

**Title of Study:** *Evaluation in Sport for Development: A Case Study of the Gansbaai Project, Football Foundation of South Africa from a Critical Perspective*

**Principal Investigator:** *Chris Arnold, M.A. Candidate, Department of Sport Management, Brock University*

**Co-Investigator:** *Kirsty K. Spence, Associate Professor, Department of Sport Management, Brock University*  
**Interview Guide:**

Name of Interviewee: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Contact Information: \_\_\_\_\_

Audio Reference: \_\_\_\_\_

Hello. I would first like to thank you for taking the time to participate in my study. My name is Chris Arnold, and I am a Graduate student at Brock University, in Ontario, Canada. I am conducting research interviews to better examine the role of the FFSA and evaluation in Sport for Development programming. This interview will be digitally recorded, and will take approximately 45 minutes. The interview will focus on your experiences with Sport for Development, and the Football Foundation of South Africa's program here in Gansbaai. Any data collected in this interview will be made anonymous before being published.

#### Questions for Administrators/Officials:

1. In what manner have you been involved in sport for development, prior to joining Football Foundation of South Africa?
  - Background/ previous work history
  - Education/Courses
  - Volunteer work before being hired
2. What have your roles and responsibilities included within the organization since you have been working here?
  - Involvement in Gansbaai program (tasks, responsibilities)
  - Involvement in other programs run by Football Foundation of South Africa
3. Can you describe the intended objectives, goals, and outcomes for the Gansbaai program? i.e., what are you trying to do/accomplish?
  - Intended outcomes, goals, and objectives
  - Program description
4. Can you describe for me some of the social problems in the Gansbaai area?
  - Poverty, crime, housing, lack of water/food, safety, education, physical fitness, employment.
5. Describe some of the general development efforts that exist in the area, outside of the Foundation.
  - Other development initiatives, understanding context
6. How has the program changed since it was first implemented to adapt to and address these social problems?
  - Policies, program design
  - Support structures in place outside of program delivery
  - Training courses
7. How successful have these program changes been? Can you think of an example of a program change that was successful in addressing an issue?

8. Describe the typical participant when they first start participating in the program.
  - Characteristics, behaviours, attitudes
  - Perceptions of the participant
  - Expected outcomes for the child
8. Describe how such a participant changes over time through their participation in the program, if at all.
  - Factors contributing to changes
9. How do you track changes in behaviour throughout participation in the program, if at all?
  - Internal Evaluation and monitoring process
  - Perceptions and opinions
10. How does the participants' background affect their performance or involvement in the program, if at all?
  - Historical tensions, overcoming those tensions, etc.
  - Behaviour tendencies
11. What kind of evaluation processes do you use internally within the organization to ensure your program is running as effectively as possible, in meeting program goals, objectives, and outcomes?
12. What kinds of pressures do you face from different stakeholders, if any?

This study has been reviewed and received ethics clearance through Brock University's Research Ethics Board (file 11-273).

## APPENDIX F

### INTERVIEW GUIDE - PARTICIPANTS

July 4, 2012

**Title of Study:** *Evaluation in Sport for Development: A Case Study of the Gansbaai Project, Football Foundation of South Africa from a Critical Perspective*

**Principal Investigator:** *Chris Arnold, M.A. Candidate, Department of Sport Management, Brock University*

**Co-Investigator:** *Kirsty Spence, Associate Professor, Department of Sport Management, Brock University*  
**Interview Guide:**

Name of Interviewee: \_\_\_\_\_  
Contact Information: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_  
Audio Reference: \_\_\_\_\_

Hello. I would first like to thank you for taking the time to participate in my study. My name is Chris Arnold, and I am a Graduate student at Brock University, in Ontario, Canada. I am conducting research interviews to better understand the FFSA and evaluation in Sport for Development programming. This interview will be digitally recorded, and will take approximately 45 minutes. The interview will focus on your experiences with the program here in Gansbaai as a participant. Any data collected in this interview will be made anonymous before being published.

#### Questions for Participants:

1. Describe your experience with the Foundation.
  - History of involvement (how did they get involved, challenges to participating)
  - Level of enjoyment
  - Intentions to continue participating
  - Effects on outcomes
2. Tell me about the instructors and your interactions with them.
3. Tell me about a negative experience you have here (potential fight, disagreement, frustration)
4. How did you deal with that experience, and what did you learn from it?
5. Describe how you felt about the other participants when you first joined the program.
6. Has your time being a part of the program changed how you feel about other participants?
7. If so, can you describe how participation has influenced you?
8. Tell me about your life away from the sports complex.
9. How does your experience with the Foundation affect you at home, if at all?
10. Tell me about your favourite part of the program, and why. What makes you want to keep coming back?
11. Tell me what things you think would help improve this program.

This study has been reviewed and received ethics clearance through Brock University Research Ethics Board (file 11-273).